

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 15, 1878.

## The Week.

GENERAL BUTLER has given his written reply to Kearney's questions about the power of the State over Chinese immigration, and it cannot be called altogether encouraging as regards that, because he says the Supreme Court has decided that no State can, under the United States Constitution, prevent the entrance of subjects of the Chinese Empire *as such*. He suggests, therefore, that the Chinese should be considered "a curse," and then, like the doctor who cured all diseases by throwing the patient into "fits," in the treatment of which he possessed extraordinary skill, he makes short work of them. He holds that a State has the power to rid itself of "a curse," and mentions four distinct "curses" over which it has already unquestioned control, viz.: famine, incendiarism, crime, and liquor-peddling. Under this rule, however, Massachusetts would have a right to get rid of both Butler and Kearney, for they are both curses and cursing curses to boot. It follows, according to Butler, that if the Chinese be a curse, the State to which they come is a "lazar-house," and every State has a right to refuse to be a "lazar-house." "No State," he says, "can, against its will, so long as it is independent and sovereign, be made the lazarus-house of the world," and "nothing in the Constitution gives a branch of the Executive the right by treaty to make it the supreme law of the land that any State shall be the lazarus-house of Asia." If Kearney is satisfied with this legal opinion he is simpler than we supposed him. If he deals with it as it deserves he will take a new rope, and after giving Butler thirty-nine lashes with it, and cursing him roundly, will hang him to a lamp-post as an old cheat and humbug and deceiver of the godlike workingmen.

The real objection to the Chinese is one which cannot be reached by any statute or constitution that can stand in this country. They are as moral and religious as Kearney himself, and more agreeable personally to the great majority of Americans. The Chinese are underbidding the Irish and other European immigrants in the labor market, and they could not do this if their standard of living was not lower and their habits more economical; but this is the very offence the Irish committed against the native Americans. The Irish mode of living has been very objectionable to Americans from the very beginning. No decent American—none of the kind of men who made the country what it is—likes or would like to have Kearney living near him, or competing in business with him. All such men consider him an odious and dirty ruffian, foul and immoral in his conduct and language, or, in other words, a "curse," but it has never entered into any one's head to get rid of him on that account by law. The real Chinese question is one which Kearney does not touch, and which it would be ridiculous for either him or Butler to raise, and that is, whether a certain standard of living and certain social ideals should be hereafter exacted from all foreigners seeking settlement in this country. There would be a great deal to be said in favor of such a test, and it would have a large body of supporters if it were practicable, but there is no test worth imposing which would not shut out a large proportion of the European immigrants. Any State in which Kearney enjoys liberty of speech is in a certain sense a "lazar-house." It is true the Europeans amalgamate with the Americans after a generation, and the Chinese probably would not; but then are we prepared to legislate that no race which is not likely to amalgamate completely with the bulk of the existing population shall be allowed to remain here? If so, how should we deal with the negroes?

The philosophy of the political campaign seems to be understood by General Ben. Harrison, of Indiana, who, instead of "making it hot

under the old flag," has stated with uncommon clearness and candor the obligations of the Government with respect to its indebtedness of all descriptions, and has done his part toward lifting public sentiment into a purer atmosphere than the Republicans of his State have been accustomed to breathe. The philosophy of the situation is, that the Republicans have nothing to gain by attacking the public credit either by repealing the Resumption Act or otherwise, since the Democrats will always surpass them in such meanness, and the Greenback party proper will outdo both. General Harrison, who by the way is presumptively the candidate of his party for Senator Morton's seat (held *ad interim* by Voorhees), delivered a speech at Richmond, Indiana, last Friday, the greater part of which related to pending financial issues. He vindicated the resumption policy without grimaces or apologies, exposed the false pretence that the hard times have been caused by contraction of the currency (since the currency has not been contracted), and showed that if there had been any such contraction it would have been in pursuance of a resolution passed by Congress December 18, 1865, "cordially concurring" in such a measure then proposed by Secretary McCulloch, upon which resolution Mr. Voorhees voted in the affirmative. The effects of "fiat-money" upon the laboring classes were portrayed with signal ability, and the speech, as a whole, indicated Mr. Harrison's fitness for the best position in the public councils which the State of Indiana has to bestow.

It is another good symptom that in Pennsylvania also the Republican campaign has been opened with a speech devoted almost wholly to financial and economic issues. The speaker was Mr. Galusha A. Grow, and his remarks were so much in accordance with the *Tribune's* notion of what the party issues should be that it prints them in full and adopts them as its own sentiments. Like General Harrison, the veteran Pennsylvania politician denounces the irredeemable paper promise, but the honest dollar which he advocates is Blaine's "coin dollar," and not the dollar which is really and always worth one hundred cents. Mr. Grow does not mean to juggle, and in defining this coin dollar he correctly says it "represents a certain weight of metal" which "you can exchange in the commercial world anywhere for an equal weight of the same metal in the coin of any country." But just before he had said, very incorrectly, that "the coin dollar runs through the commercial world by its own inherent strength, and bears upon its face its real value." Mr. Grow attributes the present financial distress to the decline in railroad building and to over-production; the decline he explains by saying that railroad building "stopped from sheer exhaustion in that line of investment, hastened somewhat, perhaps, by a spirit of unfriendly legislation which spread over the country," but the cause of this spreading he leaves unexplained. Nor has he anything to say of the connection between the railroads of Pennsylvania and the present anomalous condition of politics in that State.

Last week the Louisiana Democrats adopted a platform as vicious and unprincipled in its financial policy as that of the Greenback-Laborers at Syracuse. When a party declares that the bonds of the United States should be paid with non-interest-bearing notes there is no lower pit for it to fall into. The best thing to hope for is that Dennis Kearney may go to New Orleans, organize the mob whom this platform was intended to conciliate, and compel the decent folks to organize against them. As the matter now stands, the fine gentlemen will vote the ticket and stay by the party, hoping that the platform will pass for buncombe outside their own State, and that no mischief will result in Congress. The real effect will be still further to demoralize the Democratic party in the North and West, and to put a new argument into the mouths of Republicans, who will contend, with some reason, that the reconstructed rebels are seeking to repudiate the public debt by way of revenge for the emancipation of the slaves. The Republican party

of Louisiana is virtually disbanded for this campaign, although efforts are making to save two or three members of Congress. A new party, composed mainly of the old Native American organization, is crystallizing and drawing heavily upon the colored population for recruits. Whether it is penetrated with honest ideas than the Democrats in reference to money and the public faith remains to be seen. It could not be worse.

The "new rebellion" in South Carolina, which has so alarmed Mr. Foster, and seemed to him to call for a Solid North, has ended ingloriously. The mountain distillers, apparently despairing of overthrowing the United States Government and establishing a confederacy on the basis of free whiskey, have offered to surrender and plead guilty on condition that their sentences be suspended during good behavior. The district-attorney recommends the acceptance of this offer, and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue does accept it, except as regards Redmond and others who fired on the revenue officers, so that this great cloud is now lifted from the future of the country. If Mr. Jefferson Davis could now be induced to hold his tongue, and Mr. Singleton, of Mississippi, would give up the doctrine of State Rights, Mr. Foster would, doubtless, as soon have the North liquid as "solid." We cannot deny, however, that as long as "rebellions" can be got up by any two men with a pair of copper kettles there will be room for anxiety.

At the time of Niles G. Parker's arrest, last October, the State of South Carolina issued also a requisition for Hiram H. Kimpton, formerly its financial agent under the Scott administration. Kimpton, however, prudently made off, and it was only last week that he was arrested in Westfield, Mass. He is now in jail at Springfield, under heavy bonds, awaiting the action of Governor Rice on the requisition, which is based on a complaint of conspiracy in March, 1872, with Senator Patterson (at that time president of the Blue Ridge Railroad Company), with Parker and others to bribe members of the South Carolina Legislature to vote for certain financial bills then pending, one of which related to the railroad just mentioned, one to Kimpton's agency in New York, and one to the bonds of the Senate. Ex-Governor Chamberlain has offered himself or has been retained as one of the counsel for the defence, and has every motive for preventing the surrender of Kimpton, inasmuch as the reports of the South Carolina fraud committee, as well as the confessions of Parker, have implicated him also in all the Ring's trafficking in the honor and credit of the State. The objection on which most reliance will be placed is probably that which availed in the Winslow extradition case—viz., that the authorities of South Carolina do not mean to punish him on the indictment, but wish to get hold of him for another purpose. Undoubtedly the State has more than one ground of proceeding against Kimpton, and even earlier than the one chosen—for example, his share in swindling it out of its stock in the Greenville and Columbia Railroad in 1870; but this does not concern Governor Rice if, as appears, the *prima-facie* evidence accompanying the complaint of bribery is sufficient. Kimpton is reported to dread going South again, and to consider himself persecuted by being singled out in this way; he affects a great horror of South Carolina prisons on account of their extreme squalor, and looks forward to a very brief existence in case he is shut up in them. The Boston *Advertiser* says he was never very intimate with Chamberlain, either in college or out of it, and denies that the latter induced him to come to South Carolina or secured his appointment as financial agent.

The Commission upon the removal of the Sioux Indians has determined to accede to their wishes and to grant them the White Clay country for their permanent home. General Sherman thought they should be kept near the Missouri River, and the Commissioners offered them fifteen hundred additional head of cattle if they would consent to this plan. The Indians, partly it seems under the influence of Union Pacific agents, refused to entertain the proposal and

adhered to their original demand. The Government possesses no means of compelling submission except by stopping supplies—a course which might result in disastrous war owing to the fact that the Indians are well provisioned, that Sitting Bull is encamped invitingly within six days' march, and that the two tribes whose submission is desired number thirteen thousand and are held in check by only two hundred and fifty cavalry. The Indians, therefore, gained their point. If the end in view be not merely a temporary postponement of difficulties, but permanent settlement and an honest attempt at civilizing the Sioux, as ought to be the case, the conclusion is a wise one. The lands to which they go have large well-watered and well-wooded tracts, and are very suitable for agriculture and cattle-raising, while the Missouri River lands are by no means so desirable. It is quite in character with our Indian policy in the past that probably the Government's military weakness rather than its desire has won for the Indians this concession to their reasonable demands. It is likely that this is the last time that Red Cloud will appear in history.

Work on the Brooklyn Bridge was suspended at the beginning of the week owing to Comptroller Kelly's refusal to issue bonds to complete New York's share of the total cost of the enterprise. This share is one-third of \$8,000,000, and there still remains to be paid out on account of it \$1,666,666. Arguments for and against the legality of further outlay on the part of this city have been submitted to Corporation Counsel Whitney, and he has decided that it is the Comptroller's duty to issue the bonds and pay the money on the requisition of the Trustees. He does not allow that the Act of 1875, in fixing the amount of \$8,000,000 as a maximum for the two cities, had reference to payments already made, but holds that it was purely prospective. Nor does he find that the terms of the act justify suspension of payments if it seems probable that the bridge will cost more than the maximum in view. The Trustees, he says, will certainly in that case lose all right to call for further contributions, but up to that point the city must go regardless of consequences, and with full knowledge that in the Trustees is vested the sole authority to decide on the best method of building the bridge in conformity with the requirements of the law as to size, height, and strength. The decision is fortified by other considerations which seem to approve its soundness. Mr. Kelly, however, refuses to be convinced, and insists upon the matter being carried into the courts. He uses the arguments just enumerated, and adds another, of such late date as to be puerile—namely, that it is Brooklyn which will derive most benefit from the bridge, as few New-Yorkers want to go to Brooklyn. His action is variously ascribed to loyalty to his trust, and to his desire to control for political purposes the appointment of the five to six hundred voters engaged upon the bridge. He cannot really suppose that this great work will be suffered to lapse, and he must know the poor economy of interrupting so delicate a construction on the eve of the inclement season. We do not overrate the importance of the bridge to New York when we say that it might easily become a dividing issue in our local elections.

A remarkable feature of the financial situation is the dearness of money in London and its cheapness here. The Bank of England during the week advanced its discount rate to 5 per cent., and loans secured by collateral were even higher. Here 1 per cent. was the common rate for loans secured by pledge of United States bonds, and 2 per cent. where the collateral was approved railroad stocks or bonds. Naturally enough, with this condition of affairs, American securities have been returned from London, and sterling bills have advanced from near the point at which it is profitable to import gold to near the point of profitable export. The extremely low rate here results in good part from Treasury influence, which, disregarding everything else, is directed to the encouragement of purchases of the United States 4 per cent. bonds. Specifically what has been done is to make the money market extremely easy by leaving with



or putting into the banks Treasury money. Since our last issue \$10,000,000 more 4 per cent. bonds have been sold and an equal amount of 5.20s (6 per cents) have been called in for redemption. The Secretary is evidently determined to make hay while the sun shines, so far as refunding is concerned, knowing that in the autumn the legitimate demand for money will probably put a stop to the sales of 4 per cents. It is to be hoped that he will not press refunding so as to unsettle the markets, which must be in favorable condition when he begins specie payments.

The Silver Conference was opened in Paris on Saturday, M. Léon Say being elected President. As some of the members had not arrived it was adjourned to Friday, the 16th. It is to be hoped that the discussions will then be pushed on as rapidly as possible. They cannot last very long, because it is very unlikely that the members on either side have anything to say on the question with which the others are not thoroughly familiar. All our representatives can do is to offer to come to terms as to a ratio between the value in circulation of the two metals, but any ratio which is likely to be accepted by the Latins would be unsatisfactory to the Silver-men here. A prompt conclusion of the Conference would be useful in preparing the public mind here for some action on the part of Congress putting an end to the sorry comedy which our currency arrangements now present, and saving the Treasury from the drain of its gold when resumption begins. One of the most difficult features in the task of the American delegates will be to answer the question, which will doubtless be put to them early in the proceedings, what steps this Government has taken, or proposes to take, to prevent the practical adoption of a single silver standard by us as soon as silver coin becomes sufficiently plentiful.

The only advance made in the solution of the Eastern question in England consists in the announcement that the reforms in Asiatic Turkey, stipulated for in the convention, will be defined and regulated by treaty, which is now in process of negotiation and will be anxiously looked for as a revelation of the extent of the liabilities which England has incurred. The six millions sterling, which was voted last spring, and which the Chancellor of the Exchequer announced pleasantly would not be all spent, has gone long ago, and the occupation of Cyprus seems already likely to call for considerable outlay which cannot be charged on the revenues of the island. There is a great rush of traders to the place, and real estate has already risen enormously. The Continental press has been much amused by Lord Beaconsfield's speech, that of Paris in particular finding it full of jokes. The doctrine that the partition of Turkey has helped to consolidate and strengthen the Turkish Empire, which the Premier gravely laid down, has caused much mirth. It is worthy of note that the *Pall Mall Gazette* already propounds the suggestion that the Anglo-Turkish Convention will never be carried out, and was never meant to be carried out; that it was devised as a means of extricating the Ministers from the scrape in which the Treaty of San Stefano left them, and enabling them to "come home in triumph," though Russia refused to give way to the needful extent even when threatened with the "reserves" and the Indian troops. It has, therefore, now served its purpose, and the *Gazette* thinks "the grand new policy" will be allowed to fall to the ground.

The Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina has been contested at almost every step, but the gravity of the opposition can only be inferred from the very meagre despatches. The first rude check was at Sheptshe, on the Bosna, in its middle course, from which a reconnoitring party of hussars was repulsed, and afterwards in its retreat attacked with considerable loss at Maglai, through which it had already passed with impunity on the advance. The Thirteenth Austrian Army Corps occupied the latter place after an engagement on the 5th instant; and from thence to Sheptshe there was continuous fighting with the main division of the insurgent force, which was provided with cannon. The town, abandoned by

the Mussulman population, was occupied on the 8th, and the advance the next day was upon the fortified pass of Vranduk, which, as well as Senitzza, appears not to have been held, for General Philippovitch effected on the 13th, at Vitesh, a junction with the force under the Grand Duke of Wirtemberg, whose advance was parallel up the valley of the Sanna. The Twentieth Corps, however, whose objective was Svornik on the Servian frontier, by way of the valley of the Sprezza, was engaged at Gratschanitzza on the 4th, and on the 8th, 9th, and 10th was resisted as far as Tuzla, from which place it was obliged to fall back to Gratschanitzza again. The Eighteenth Corps crossed the Dalmatian frontier, August 1, into Herzegovina, and occupied Mostar on the 5th. The concentration on Serayevo is therefore complete with the exception of the Svornik wing. The operations in the direction of Servia will bring the Austrian forces into close contact with those of the principality now occupied in watching them.

There appears no doubt that the resistance proceeds from the Mussulman inhabitants joined by deserters from the regular army, most of the regiments stationed in Bosnia being made up of Bosnians. The Porte denies stoutly having anything to do with it, which is probably true. Its late attempts to make terms with the Austrians before the latter crossed the frontier were, perhaps, due to the confusion of mind in which, according to the well-informed Vienna correspondent of the *London Times*, the decisions of the Congress left it. The pashas were apparently under the impression that the Congress had met, like that of Paris in 1856, to set Turkey on her legs again, do away with the results of the war, and leave the work of "reform" in Turkish hands—or, in other words, let it be carried on "within the party." They have accordingly been completely dazed by the partition, and have had some difficulty in believing that the distribution of territory was a reality. It is indeed reported that nobody has as yet dared to tell the Sultan what has happened.

The agitation in Italy about "Italia irredenta" continues, having received a fresh stimulus from the participation of the Garibaldi family. Menotti has presided at a large and excited meeting in Rome, and a telegram was received from his father advising the people of Trieste to rise and "take to the mountains." Austria has thus far taken no notice of the demonstrations, and probably will not do so, as the Italian Government is very energetic in keeping them within proper bounds. In the meantime no progress has been made towards an agreement between Turkey and Greece with regard to the territory to be ceded to the latter, and the Greeks show themselves indisposed to treat with the Turks directly, preferring to have recourse to arbitration, which would doubtless adopt the recommendation of the Congress pure and simple. That the Turks will have to swallow this last bitter pill before long there seems little question, as both the French and Italian ambassadors at Constantinople have intimated very significantly that war with Greece, even if successful, would do Turkey no good.

M. Reutern, the Russian Minister of Finance, who has been in office almost ever since the Crimean War, and to whose skill and energy the financial recovery of Russia and the conversion of a deficit into a surplus in the annual revenue within that period have been due, has resigned his office, ostensibly because his health is declining, but really, it is said, because the bureaucratic and war party have got the better of him. He threatened to resign if the Congress had not been held, and he has lately made a great effort to have the three steamers bought by voluntary subscriptions, to be used as cruisers, given back to commerce, and looked on their conversion into war vessels with the approbation of the Emperor as a personal defeat. His retirement, now that peace is assured, makes little impression, but it will be exceedingly difficult to fill his place, for financiers do not abound in Russia.

## THE "SOLID NORTH" FOLLY.

THE confession of Mr. Foster, of Ohio, that he is disappointed in the results of "the President's policy," and agrees with the malcontent wing of the Republican party that we should return to the plan of opposing a "Solid North" to a "Solid South" for an indefinite period, is a sign of the times of which all those who looked to the Cincinnati Convention for "reform within the party," and who supported Mr. Hayes as the representative of that reform, should take note. Mr. Foster's defection, considering the position he has occupied towards the Administration, shows that the indifference or hostility to the pledges of the Cincinnati platform, which we had supposed was confined to the section of the party represented by Mr. Blaine, Mr. Conkling, and the Chandlers, is spreading; and that there is some danger that by the time the next Convention meets there will be but few to remember that the Republican party undertook, in 1876, to reform the civil service and the currency, and to pacify the South. We must ask those who will think that we are giving too broad a construction to Mr. Foster's language to consider well what is meant by the proposal that we should devote ourselves to the perpetuation of the political division created by slavery, by arraying the North as a body against the South as a body. To carry out any such policy successfully would necessarily involve the laying aside of all business except the collection of reasons for disliking and distrusting the South, and for refusing to co-operate with Southern men on any question not immediately connected with what are called "the results of the war." Our newspapers would have to gather all the stories they could hear of showing the insecurity of negro life and property in that region, and all the evidence, however slight or trifling, of the hostility of the Southern people to Federal authority, or of their reluctance to pay Federal dues. Every article or speech appearing in a Southern paper, indicating dislike of negro voting, or restiveness under the public debt, or of a desire to obtain payment for the emancipated slaves, would have to be quoted by our Republican press, and commented on in a way that would be likely to magnify its significance and "fire the Northern heart," and at the same time exasperate the Southern orators and editors, so as to draw from them more material of the same sort. Everything would have to be done, too, that could be done by tongue or pen to prevent any revival of confidence in the leading members of Southern society, the Congressmen, judges, lawyers, ministers; their apologies for or explanations of local disorders would have to be denounced as hypocritical or evasive, and their manifestations of interest in questions of general concern, or their attempts to co-operate with Northern reformers, would have to be repelled as insidious attempts to throw the Northern public off its guard.

We do not mean to say that the best Republicans, such men as Mr. Foster himself, for instance, would engage in this work—though the maxim, "*Qui veut la fin, veut les moyens*," might fairly enough be applied to them—for probably most of them when talking about the "Solid North" and "Solid South" attach no definite and well-considered meaning to their own words; but in practice this is the way in which the business of keeping a Solid North arrayed against a Solid South would have to be carried on by the rank and file of "workers," the managers, stump-speakers, and editors. The South would have to be painted as black as possible in order to keep the North irritated and anxious, and make the Southern press and politicians supply the needful material for campaign speeches and documents. Nor would there be much likelihood that this material would not be forthcoming in sufficient quantity. When we see the facts which have led Mr. Foster to call for the encouragement of sectional animosity, the resistance of mountain distillers to paying the whiskey tax, a foolish speech by Jeff. Davis, and the enunciation of speculative opinions by a Southern Congressman on State Rights, we may well conclude that if this was all that was needed to justify the existence of the Republican party it might last for ever. To keep this flame of hostility to the South fully fanned, however, denunciations and exaggerated or misconstrued descriptions of Southern politics and society would not be sufficient. Northern questions, or national

questions not connected with the Southern question—such, for instance, as those which are included under the general head of reform—would have to be neglected or belittled in the manner foreshadowed by the Republican leaders during the last Presidential canvass, when they absolutely ignored the platform, and devoted themselves exclusively to denunciations of the South. The reform of the civil service, of the currency, and of our system of taxation, and every other fiscal, administrative, or judicial problem, would have to be set down either as possessing comparatively small importance, or as one of the non-essentials of the party creed in order to secure union in the task of defending the Government and Treasury against the designs of "the ex-rebels." As the designs would be constantly renewed in the Northern press, the defence would be everlasting, and the reforms be indefinitely postponed or relegated to the category of things possible only in a better world. How rapidly this category could be filled even with what we now regard as our most precious blessings is well illustrated in the growth and acceptance by large bodies of sensible Americans, within forty years, of the opinion that republican government cannot be conducted on business principles, or in any way except the mode adopted by the Turks after their entrance into Europe. When we see a doctrine of this kind laid down as a great political principle by so considerable a man as the present governor of Massachusetts, for instance, there is nothing extravagant in the prediction that forty years more of preoccupation with Southern problems would subject us to the conclusion that the trial of suits about property by trained judges was a needless and antiquated formality, and that such controversies could be best settled by town-meetings.

Let us observe, too, that thousands of those who supported Mr. Hayes most ardently, and most confidently promised "thorough, radical, and complete civil-service reform" in his name, have not only got over the shock of seeing the civil service used immediately on his accession to power to reward the set of bad characters at the South who were engaged in the electoral count, but point triumphantly to the fact that no participation in their frauds has been brought home to the President, as if this of itself proved the success of his Administration. Nor is this the only curious illustration of the readiness of public opinion, if not constantly restrained and enlightened, to accommodate itself to circumstances however mischievous and unwholesome. It is only two years since General Grant left the Presidency, after having given the country at least four years of unparalleled corruption and disregard of law. His faults as a civil ruler were so glaring that he had in 1876 neither a defender nor an apologist who dared to open his mouth. But at this moment "the guilty men" who figured most prominently in his régime have emerged from their hiding places and are actually clamoring for another term for him, and shrewd observers begin to say that, in spite of all our sorrowful experience of the past and our anxiety about the future, we run a good deal of risk of seeing him nominated in 1880 on the "hurrah" system; that is, offered as a candidate to the party of moral ideas with loud yells, after a blatherskite speech from some "Bob" Ingersoll, put up by the swarm of jobbers, defaulters, and wire-pullers who recall with maudlin tears the good old days when a rascal was never so safe in the public service as when he was "under fire"—that is, when the proofs of his villany were being arranged and published. What is more striking still than all this is that many men who profited nothing by the corruption of the Grant régime are reconciled to and indeed cheered by the prospect of his re-election, from feeling that he will in some manner protect us against the Communists; their ideas of the Constitution of their own country being apparently so muddled that they fancy that he will be able, they do not exactly know how, to dispense with legislation and defy Congress, and raise an army or police for the defence of property without regard to the law of the land. All this is the not unnatural result of the extravagant, and indeed absurd, expectations about Mr. Hayes raised by his friends in 1876. The reaction of the disappointment is like the buoyancy of the hopefulness—a little grotesque in its manifestations. But it is more than



ever necessary that the sober-minded and rational, by whose labors the Government is to be reformed—if reform be possible—should now neither give way to disappointment nor relax their exertions for a better result next time. Something has been gained by Mr. Hayes's Administration, and in the two remaining years of it we have no doubt its influence will furnish support to those who seek to prevent our being presented with a choice of evils in 1880. It will be a great misfortune (in the present state of the country an incalculable one) if in the next Presidential canvass prominent reformers have no better work to do than running about showing what a rascal the other candidate is—how much worse in many important particulars than their own man, even admitting the truth of some of the most serious charges against the latter.

#### MR. HEWITT'S COMMITTEE ON THE DEPRESSION IN BUSINESS.

THE Congressional Committee now holding sessions in the Post-office building to enquire into the causes and remedy of the existing business depression have commenced work by giving audience to the leaders of "the unemployed," of whom about two score have thus far been listened to. The witnesses are generally agreed that the depression grows out of the use of machinery in the arts and the payment of interest on money, but as to remedies there exists a diversity of opinion so remarkable that nobody could have conceived it as existing even in the ranks of socialistic agitators, spiritualist mediums, and world-harmonic seers. One philosopher thought that a universal eight-hour law, rigidly enforced, would lead to good times; another rested his case on the thesis that all stone-cutting should be done where the building is to be erected, and not at the quarry, while a third made a rather ingenious attack upon the system of contract work on Government buildings. In each of these suggestions there was something that could be understood, but they served merely by way of preface to the "Socialistic Labor Party," who were present in force and developed their plans at great length and with the utmost confusion. The first representative desired that the Government should take charge of all capital and all branches of business, putting all profits into a common fund and making good all losses out of the public treasury; but the next witness thought it would be sufficient if the Government should seize all the railroads and issue greenbacks to the dissenting stockholders; and a third proposed, by way of variation, that all land should be confiscated by the Government, and the present owners be paid an annuity while they lived—an arrangement which would doubtless be welcome to many bankrupt speculators in real estate. Nearly all the witnesses agreed that there could be no prosperity until interest on money was entirely abolished, but there were different opinions as to the mode of effecting this happy result. One speaker thought that an income-tax might be imposed sufficiently heavy to check this "gangrene of accumulated capital"; another favored the plan of issuing so many greenbacks that nobody would pay any interest for the use of them. Other remedies suggested were vast public works, the prohibition of Chinese labor, the abolition of Congress and the executive and judiciary, so that "the people" might enact, interpret, and execute the laws; the repeal of all customs duties, the prohibition of exports of raw materials and of imports of manufactures; the extension of the suffrage to women, the colonization of idlers, including the army and navy, upon the public lands, and the discontinuance of chaplains in legislative bodies.

Since the resolution under which this enquiry was commenced bears the marks of demagogic origin, and implies in its preamble that the business depression is due to legislative causes, and may be removed by acts of Congress, it is desirable, and perhaps necessary, to take the testimony of those who make the most outcry and at whose instance, presumably, the investigation was ordered. It is not to be supposed that a man of Mr. Hewitt's intelligence expects to obtain light from the Schwabs, Bartholomews, and Myra Halls who have given their evidence to the committee's stenographer;

but it will perhaps be useful to have within reach some authentic record of their aims and plans, so that when General Butler, Senator Voorhees, and Mr. Hendrick B. Wright assume to speak for "the unemployed," reference may be had to the views of leaders who are nearer to them than any member of Congress. Crackbrained and destructive as their plans are shown to be, there is good ground for believing that they fairly represent the element whose interests and aspirations Butler, Ewing, Wright, and Voorhees actually subserve. They are not the industrious poor, the depositors in savings-banks, or even the majority of those who are out of work through no fault of their own. They are the disaffected mass of dwellers in cities, whom no temptation of wages could draw to the labor of the wheat-field or the lumber-camp. Their doctrine is that they have as much right to live in New York, or some other large town where there are good breweries and plenty of amusements, as anybody. The world, according to their notion, owes them not merely a living, but a particular style of living. If they were transported to the public lands, and provided at the public expense with farm implements, seed, and domestic animals, they would stay no longer than they could convert the movables into cash. The want of society, of excitement, of companions to confer with on the unequal distribution of wealth would be insupportable to them. Nine-tenths of them would be back in the cities or out on the road within a few months. The only man who can be trusted to make his permanent home on the public lands is the one who goes there of his own accord and digs and hews his own fortune for himself.

One of the most useful enquiries that the committee could make would be to ascertain the actual numbers of "the unemployed" in a few of the most afflicted localities. It would not be difficult to arrive at the percentage of adults out of work and out of money in such cities as Pittsburgh, Fall River, Scranton, and other places where manufacturing or mining industries have suffered severely and notoriously. Very wild statements are made of the numbers of such cases, but no authority is or can be cited to support them. If a considerable fraction of these surmises were true there would presently be a famine in the United States second only to that raging in Northern China. Most of our large towns have charitable organizations and relief societies, private and public, whose business it is to know who and where the unemployed are and what kind of work they can do, and to register all such information from day to day and from year to year. No investigation will be complete or satisfactory without a searching enquiry into the extent of the evil complained of as well as of the causes and remedy. There are people out of employment in good times as well as in bad times. In periods of the highest prosperity merchants in all the cities are in receipt of applications for work of some sort. Editors of newspapers are unable to recall the time when they had not more reporters and proof-readers on their books than they could find steady employment for. "Lack of employment" is therefore as much in need of definition as any other phrase in common use, and the committee will fail of their undertaking entirely if they do not collect data for drawing a line somewhere, however roughly, between those who are willing to work anywhere and at anything which will secure them an honest living and those who prefer tramping or genteel beggary to hard labor.

A colloquy between Mr. Thompson, of Pennsylvania (the mover of the investigation), and one of the socialistic-labor witnesses touched very nearly the kernel of the difficulty. The witness desired an arrangement of human affairs in which a widow with eight children should not be obliged to work at all. Mr. Thompson enquired whether that would not be offering a premium for large families. The book of Malthus being opened by the gentleman from Pennsylvania, it will be in order for Schwab and Kearney to go into his district and denounce him as a godless tyrant and oppressor who believes in placing restrictions upon the increase of the species and denies to the poor man the right to have children. Nothing would give Mr. Thompson so much trouble to explain as this inadvertence to the class whom his resolution was intended to flatter. Nevertheless the question pressing upon the committee,

and upon the whole world, at all times, is nothing else than the problem of supporting an unlimited—potentially unlimited—number of people upon a limited amount of produce. Great Britain and Germany solve this problem by emigration, France by non-increase, India and China by famine, and the United States hitherto by the westward flow of population. In remoter ages the same problem was solved by war. The swollen numbers of contiguous tribes pressed against each other till they came to blows, when the stronger put the weaker to the sword or drove them into the wilderness or the sea. Legislation is confessedly unequal to the task of putting checks upon the increase of population, but if the land-laws of a country are bad the evil may be mitigated and the crisis postponed by altering them. There can be no land cheaper than that which is obtained for nothing. The United States has offered its public lands through the Homestead Act for the cost of surveying (which is next to nothing), during the past fifteen years. More than this it cannot do without assuming burdens too great for any government and duties which it would be powerless to perform.

## THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—II.

THE COUP D'ŒIL.

PARIS, July 30, 1878.

IS it possible to get any clear notion of this great fair by means of any or of all the plans and pictures which the illustrated journals furnish? Probably not. There are many peculiarities which require more detailed representations than they will be apt to give you. There are some even of the most characteristic features of the show—of those features wherein this International differs essentially from all others—which it would seem are hard to see clearly from a distance; for visitors arrive here in a state of impatient curiosity about some of them, and find the facts very different from their previous imaginings. These “Façades” about which so much has been said and written, and the “Rue des Nations,” the Trocadéro Palace also, and its relations with the Exhibition, seem to be puzzles; and, therefore, perhaps some account of the general arrangements and outside of things may be interesting. Your readers are doubtless all familiar with the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876. This one of Paris might almost be described by contrasting it with that. The Paris show has much less ground at its disposal—less than half as much, but has much more space roofed over—not twice as much, but very near. It follows that Paris has very little open park-ground, while Philadelphia was remarkable in having so much—such noble great trees, such walks, such ample space and air! The Paris Exhibition is rather strong in external architecture and decorative effect: indeed, the exteriors of some of the buildings are surprisingly good, and this result is enhanced by the highly ornamental treatment of the somewhat restricted garden-space. It must, no doubt, be granted that in these points Philadelphia was exceedingly weak. The architecture was lamentably uninteresting, unimpressive, and in no way a help to the landscape, while the ornamental gardening was not so employed as to help the effect of the buildings. In fact, there was nothing at Philadelphia except one or two of the buildings put up by different States and nations—for instance, New Jersey and Japan—which it was worth one's while to look at; while at Paris there is much, very much, that is worth study, and the great Trocadéro Palace, which has been heartily abused, is, in spite of all, a new ornament to the most ornamental of cities, and one which is fortunately permanent. At Philadelphia all was scattered and accidental with the exception of the placing of the three principal buildings close together and in a sort of symmetry, and even this exception is more apparent than real, as they were put in one corner of the grounds, while all the rest was undistributed, irregular, in the “natural style.” At Paris all is as accurately centred and as artificial as the gardens at Versailles. This, indeed, was necessary in a space so small in comparison with the buildings, and even Count Rumford or the designers of Prospect Park in Brooklyn would have been driven to it; but it goes far to make the contrast complete. And for further points of dissimilarity, at Philadelphia the machinery was so distributed in its vast hall that it constituted a magnificent and impressive spectacle even to those who knew and cared nothing for mechanical appliances *per se*; while here it is scattered, it hides away in the outermost ranges of sheds, a quarter of a mile apart, in long-drawn, narrow, crowded buildings, fatiguing to visit, not imposing, not likely to attract anybody but the mechanic in search of the object of his study. And, finally, as a

natural complement to the last sentence, it must be written that in all the various departments of fine art Paris is to Philadelphia as all to nothing. Of all which, and especially of fine art, in detail hereafter. But you may rest assured that this contrasting of one Exhibition with the other (which reads a little as if it were written beforehand and “on general principles,” as the obvious and natural distinction between Yankee-land, with its works and ways, and France) is the effect actually produced upon the mind of every thoughtful visitor of a week's standing—one who has had barely time to visit once each and every part of the huge emporium, and not time to study any department closely.

The Seine flows by the renowned Champ de Mars, which witnessed those oaths soon to be broken and those newly-excited hopes soon to be forgotten in bloodshed and tyranny, of the beginning of that Revolution which only now, after nearly ninety years, seems to be completing itself. On the other side of the river, and exactly opposite this great plain, is the steep hill of the Trocadéro. It was in the Champ de Mars that the Exhibition of 1867 was held; but the situation is on the wrong side of the Seine, on the Rive Gauche, where, to be sure, is the Invalides with its famous dome and the tomb of the first Napoleon, and which is not quite so subordinate as the “Surrey Side” of the Thames at London, but still a little out of the way. It was resolved to avoid that little objection this time, and to unite the Champ de Mars to the Rive Droite by including the Trocadéro hill in the general plan. Now a very few figures: The open plain named above, and used for military exercises, extends back from the river toward the south-east about a thousand metres or five furlongs, or five-eighths of a mile; and this leaves only a street between this field and the front of the old military school, now and for many years the chief barrack of Paris. The width is not quite half the length. All this space of about one hundred and ten acres is enclosed for the Exhibition, and about two-thirds of it is covered by the main building itself, which is set back from the river as far as practicable. This building covers about seventy acres, nearly all roofed over, and there must be ten acres of accessory sheds—“annexes,” as the word is always—while all the buildings at Philadelphia together, Main, Machinery, Agricultural and Horticultural Halls, Memorial building and annex, Government and Women's Pavilions, did not reach a total of fifty acres.

The Pont de Jéna, a bridge previously existing, has been raised and widened by the simple process of building upon it a structure like a roof with overhanging eaves; it is all planked over, as none but foot passengers and those in rolling chairs are to pass it. On the right bank of the river the hill rises steeply, and is crowned by the Palace of the Trocadéro, a vast and permanent structure in stone, having a lofty central mass, and curved wings stretching just a quarter of a mile from north-east to southwest. All the space between the inner front of this building and that of the main structure on the Champ de Mars is open park or rather garden, dotted with small pavilions and ornamental structures of various sorts, restaurants, cafés, and “tasting offices,” and, except for these, kept in high condition as an ornamental garden. It is nearly half a mile long and half as wide, but is cut in two by the Seine, which occupies a good deal of space with its quays and the railway cutting beside it. From the covered gallery of the Trocadéro Palace is the most interesting prospect imaginable. At the spectator's feet the cascades and fountains of the hillside, with lawns in the highest condition and flower-beds at their gayest, all kept up by the rivalry of the different gardeners who have sowed the lawns and planted the flower-beds, and who watch over them continually. Then the river, and beyond it a still larger garden-ground, and then the great building, which, far from being the ugly gasometer of 1867, has lines of roof which fall into perspective in quite a seemly way, with the square domes that break them. The principal front, too, is well distributed, and is by far the most effective piece of work in iron and glass, at least on a large scale, since Sir Joseph Paxton's great greenhouse was put up in Hyde Park. The size of all this is somehow made to tell. It really looks as far to the most distant dome as it really is, fourteen hundred metres, or seven-eighths of a mile. Beyond this farthest dome is the building of the École Militaire, so called, and to the left of this unrolls itself a panorama of Paris, distant enough and extensive enough to show splendid changes of light and shadow, during the April-like days which now towards the end of July have succeeded to great and continuous heat. First, on the left is the lofty cupola of the Invalides, of which the upper part, being richly gilded while the lower part is in grey stone, has just the look of one edifice rising behind and beyond another. The spires of Sainte-Clotilde, the towers of Notre-Dame and the slender *flèche* of the Sainte-Chapelle grouped closely together, and further to the left the roofs of the Louvre, are, perhaps, the most striking fea-



tures of a scene famous enough and familiar enough as viewed from many different points, but perhaps never more beautiful than from this one. A huge etching by Maxime Lalanne exists, which ought to give this prospect except the Exposition buildings; it is not hard to find, and I recommend it to your readers; two or three copies were for sale in New York last spring. The guide-book claims for this prospect the column of the Place Vendôme and the Arc de l'Étoile, but they can hardly be said to come within its sweep; it is extensive enough and varied enough without them. And perhaps the most beautiful feature in it is the Seine with its many bridges, seen from this point as foreshortened into a broad lake. One prominent object, however, Mr. Lalanne's etching will not be found to show—a huge white dome, which rises where once was the square central cupola of the Tuileries, and where the triumphal arch of the Carrousel would now but for this rotundity be seen beyond the ruined walls of the palace of Philibert Delorme. This object is the great *ballon captif*, in which two or three parties of aeronauts at twenty francs a head make each day short voyages towards the firmament, and which does very well for a dome all day, taking the eye more quickly with its size and its pale color than any object in that part of Paris, until at four o'clock it becomes a huge pale moon for fifteen minutes, and is more prominent still. The sight-seer goes up in it for four hundred metres, which is twice as high as the highest building that ever stood on this earth; and he goes up in the easiest of all easy elevators or lifts; but still the idea of a balloon tied by a string is not exciting to the imagination. And what a satire it is on the architecture of colossal magnitudes and grand effects that this swollen bag of gas should outdo its most magnificent productions—at a little distance!

The beauty of the gardens and lawns is too much hidden from the Trocadéro Palace by the constant succession of red roofs of annexes, pavilions, and private constructions of all sorts. The lawns and flower-beds nearest the palace, with the fine series of cascades and fountains which form the central feature, are all one seas of the gardens. How well this matter of water-works is understood in France, and how little it is known elsewhere! These *eaux* do not equal those of Versailles, nor even approach them in magnitude and variety—but how effective they are, and how pleasant to the ear is the constant roar of the waters! The fountains in the Place de la Concorde are a delightful terminus for one's evening walk, if only for their ceaseless rush. There are two in Munich, away up in the Ludwigstrasse, not much to look at, but having an abundant flow of water, and for seven months in the year they are about as agreeable as anything in that little capital. Here at the Trocadéro, from out the very mass of the building where a basin brims over, filled from unseen sources, there pours a broad cascade about forty feet down to a lake below. Behind this sheet of water one can walk to enjoy the view, as seen through what was, perhaps, meant to be a film of falling spray, but which is rather, as Messrs. Gautier and Desprez put it in their clever guide-book, "a rain of pearls constantly renewed, than the uniform curtain people had been led to expect: for our part, we like it better; it is more novel and more rich." The stream then pours down a series of *gradins* or steps, or whatever they ought to be called in the very limited English vocabulary of architectural terms, with little spray-like fountains to flank the main cascade, and finally takes another plunge into a large basin of regular form, which contains two bouquet-shaped fountains of splendid abundance of water, and a tall, slender shoot of white foam between them. At the angles of this basin are four immense gilded statues of novel subject enough; they are *beasts*, wild and domestic: an elephant by M. Frémiet, and a rhinoceros by M. A. Jacquemart, facing toward the Trocadéro Palace; a horse by M. Rouillard, and a bull by M. Cain, facing the Seine and the Champ de Mars. Each faces out from the basin, and is standing on a rock, so disposed that the creature seems mounting some acclivity, with action and excitement. The bull is very effective—a splendid creature, like Rob Roy on his native heath. It is a pleasure to be able to like it, for one does get to abhor M. Cain's tortured monsters. M. Jacquemart's huge beast is also a real success. Better figures for such an ornamental purpose as this it would be hard to devise; they quite take the attention from the symbolical figures above them, though colossal also and also gilded, the six quarters of the world, of which more hereafter. It must be said, however, of all these basins and cascades that they are set too deep in the ground; that one does not see enough of the water, but too much of the stone copings from almost every point. It seems to be admitted here that the slope ought to be steeper: from the point looking up hill there is not relief enough to the series of *gradins*.

Turning to the left from the great basin, the visitor finds himself at

the brink of a whole series of little fish-ponds, forming a very irregular lake, or rather river, for each is higher than its neighbor, and the water pours slowly from one to another. These form the fresh-water aquarium. Through a dark archway one dives into the bowels of the earth, and there, beneath the greensward and the flower-beds, takes the fish-ponds in flank. The ingenious constructor has taken advantage of old quarries, such as often annoy the architect about to build in the neighborhood of Paris, to establish his picturesque habitation for fish, which, themselves in full light, are viewed by the spectator from shadowy, tunnel-like vaults. In some places they rather seem under water, so completely does the watery and fishy world surround and enclose them and their visitor.

There are two or three buildings scattered about the Trocadéro Park which are worth notice, but can only be mentioned now as having a not unpleasing effect upon the passer-by as he walks towards the bridge which crosses the Seine: the Pont de Jéna, leading to what is sometimes called the Parc de Jéna, the space between the river and the main Exhibition building. And now, as we take the bridge, it is necessary to call to the reader's attention the main division of the whole Exhibition into left and right, French and foreign. All the half towards Paris, the north-east half—that on our left as we leave the Trocadéro behind and face the main structure—is French, belonging to France and Algeria and the colonies alone. The right-hand, or south-west, half is that of all the world besides. This division is absolute in the main building, except for the fine-art galleries in the middle; it is absolute for the grounds about it, where all the annexes and sheds on the left are as French as the neighboring parts of the main galleries. It is absolute in the Trocadéro Palace behind us, where the bewildering loan collection illustrates French art of all ages on the one hand, and the arts not French on the other. It is absolute in the grand Vestibule d'Honneur which we now approach. On the left there rises a graceful-enough pavilion or temple of classical architecture, and devoted to the two famous national art-industries, the porcelain-works of Sèvres and the tapestry manufactures of the Gobelins and of Beauvais. On the right is the Indian Pavilion, called on the plans the Pavilion of the Prince of Wales, though really he has had nothing to do with it, except as president of the British Commission, and it is filled with the exhibits of many different princes, private persons, and commercial firms, anything truly East Indian being welcomed, even though foreign (yet *French*) owners may send it. The Prince of Wales's collection is all about it in cases, but not, I think, within.

Directly in front is a French clock, filling the central cupola, its revolving pendulum hanging from the cupola, seventy-five feet above. This only seems a little to encroach upon the strangers' division. Beyond it, on the axis of the Palace, is the doorway leading into the fine-art galleries, on each side of which is a street, not wide, covered with gravel, and open to the sky.

R. S.

## SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.

II.

HAMBURG, July, 1878.

THE tool which Bismarck had found in furthering his plans against the Liberal majority in 1862 and 1864 was Ferdinand Lassalle (born in Breslau 1825 and died at Geneva 1864). It was he who first but vainly tried to drive the wedge into the closed ranks of the Prussian opposition. He was a man of genius, an earnest scholar, a fluent writer, a ready speaker, a profound thinker, and a fast-living dandy. When quite young he assisted the Countess Hatzfeld in her notorious divorce suit against her husband, triumphed over all difficulties thrown in her way, lived for a time on the Rhine, in Paris, and Switzerland, where he belonged to the radical democracy, and then went to Berlin, where he devoted himself to scientific studies. Humboldt praised him for his critical and political pamphlets. Boeckh declared his exposition of the philosophy of the old Greek Heraclitus to be a masterly and most ingenious philosophical and philological treatise. His juridical essay, 'System der erworbenen Rechte,' is still considered a standard work, although its author had only studied law after he had left the university, and had never practised it. In this essay Lassalle discussed the question of the influence which the passage of new laws exercises on existing laws, and arrived at the conclusion that a law has effect only so long as a legal rule or institution has not been prohibited by a new law. This doctrine is full of revolutionary consequences. But Lassalle wanted more than mere literary renown. There are few men whose character is such a strange mixture of the most contradictory qualities. Vanity and ambition were the

demons of his soul. Day and night he was tortured by the morbid desire of making himself known to the world and playing a leading part in moulding its destinies. The same scholar who in his study entered into the nicest questions of Greek philosophy and Roman law, who wrote brilliant essays and elegant verses, fell in love with school-girls, boasted to them about his importance in literature and politics, described himself as irresistible for every female heart, or flirted with old coquettes. A true man, impressed with a consciousness of the duties he owed to science and to his country, would never in a jealous fit have fought a duel with a semi-civilized Wallachian, thereby finding an untimely end, and all for a woman like Madame Rackowitz, at present an insignificant actress at second-class theatres in Germany and the United States. A Jew by birth, and, although rich and independent, often snubbed on that account, Lassalle strove to prove to the old aristocracy of birth and learning that he was their equal, if not their superior. He wanted to become one of the political leaders of Germany. The diffidence, however, with which his advances were received made him hate the society with which his whole being was interwoven. To revenge himself he now did his utmost to infuse hatred and rebellion into the working-classes, and, perceiving his chance in the more promising rôle of a social agitator, he draped himself in the mantle of the poor people's tribune. It must be admitted that he was a master in organizing the hostile feelings of the workingmen into a systematic warfare against their employers and the well-to-do classes. By uniting and forming them into associations Lassalle was the first to give the workingmen the conviction of their strength, thus inspiring them with overbearing confidence. The more he lived as a sybarite himself, the more aristocratic his wants and leanings became, the more he pleaded the cause of the poor and the oppressed. He speculated on the worst passions in man—on envy and jealousy, on laziness and lust—while the only practical measures he proposed were the advocacy of universal suffrage and the creation of so-called productive associations, of which the capital was to be provided for by the Government in the shape of paper money bearing interest. Although these measures were of no value for the pressing needs, Lassalle's appeals to prejudice and passion, his red-hot harangues to the workingmen of all parts of Germany, his defences in courts, and his personal influence, as well as the foundation of the "General German Workingman's Association," spread the seeds of discontent and the spirit of rebellion among thousands and hundreds of thousands of this class. In a country of long political experience it would have been impossible to gain such a far-reaching political influence, and even in Prussia Lassalle would not have acquired that importance if at that time she had not been engaged in a bitter contest for the first principles of constitutional life.

It was in vain that the Liberal party warned against such reckless proceedings, which they compared to the sorcerer's apprentice who conjured the demons without being able to banish them again. "Don't touch," said Schulze-Delitzsch, "that dark boundary line in our nature which separates the beastly instincts from its human feelings; keep off your frivolous hands, and do not unshackle the beast which will devour you!" Lassalle, however, never tired of threatening the iron clash of his battalions of workingmen, ready for blowing up the decrepit old world into atoms; Bismarck even gave him the means for starting his productive associations, which, however, proved a failure. In 1864 the Prussian Prime Minister received and introduced to the king the so-called and self-constituted workingman's deputations from Silesia, which asked to participate in fixing the wages of workingmen, and brought some severe charges against Liberal manufacturers which afterwards were found to be false. Lothar Bucher, formerly a political refugee of 1848, then Bismarck's confidential councillor, and lately one of the secretaries of the Berlin Congress, in 1865 applied to Marx and Engels, in London, for articles to the Prussian official gazette (the *Staatsanzeiger*), in which they were asked freely to develop their views on financial matters. At that time, in Berlin and in the large cities, Liberal meetings were broken up by the Socialists; and the police, which in all other cases is omnipresent in Prussia, stood by without interfering, and allowed the Socialists the most outrageous acts of lawlessness and violence. The Minister of the Interior, as he sneeringly remarked, observed a strict neutrality towards the Liberals and the Socialists, and when interrogated in the Chamber answered that he allowed the Social movement to go on for a time in order to make the world appreciate what it amounted to.

After Lassalle's death, and by his wish, Bernard Becker was appointed his successor in the presidency of the General Workingman's Association. This man, however, was utterly insignificant and worthless, and soon afterwards resigned. Thereupon T. B. von Schweitzer appeared on the

stage. An offspring of an old aristocratic Frankfort family, he was originally a lawyer. Sentenced for a crime committed against public morality, he went to Berlin, where, in 1865, he published the *Sozialdemokrat*, which remained the official organ of his party for ten years. It daily preached the doctrine that the middle classes conspired for the misery of the workingmen, that the latter must rely on the Conservative parties, and that Bismarck was the only man who was willing to do at least something for them. His own party publicly denounced Schweitzer as a "paid scoundrelly agent" of the Prussian Government—a charge which has never been contradicted or refuted by his coeditors and friends, although often called upon to do so.

In creating the North German Confederation Bismarck at once introduced universal, secret, and direct suffrage for the elections to the Reichstag. While formerly the poorer classes were practically nearly excluded from participation in politics, the new law conferred on each male citizen of twenty-five years an almost unrestricted vote. The Social leaders at once perceived the high importance of this measure, and with their usual energy made use of it as a most effectual means for securing their influence. Thus far the Socialists had been an organized rabble; but from the moment of the introduction of universal suffrage they became a political party. This new law is less restrictive than that of any other country. While you, for instance, require one year's residence in the State before a citizen can poll his vote, the German voter by his sole actual residence in a certain district is entitled to a vote. In a large city he may even remove from one ward to another, and can vote there provided he has effected this change an hour before the official voting-lists are made up. Thus it often happens that a few days prior to an election crowds of workingmen move from one quarter, where their party is sure of success, to another quarter where their numbers decide the election in their favor. The challenging of voters is unknown to the German law. The age of the deputy is fixed at twenty-five years, and wherever he may reside, if he be a citizen, he can be elected by any constituency in any part of Germany.

Under the new constitution, however, in 1867, at first only three and in the course of the session two more Socialists (Schweitzer among them) were elected as deputies to the first North German Parliament. This was owing to a split in the party; besides, the times were not favorable. Great political questions occupied the foreground of the public interest, business was prostrated, the markets were dull, and a general distrust prevailed among the manufacturing classes of all Europe. Schweitzer, in order to keep his adherents together, and to strengthen their feelings as an oppressed class, nevertheless availed himself of the law just passed which abolished all legal restraints upon workingmen's peaceful coalitions, and recklessly organized strikes for the purpose of enforcing better conditions for the workingmen, but at that time, for the above reasons, totally failed and only awakened suspicion. It was chiefly because of these strikes that within a few years the standard of German workmanship fell below that of other nations, for among other evil consequences they had the bad effect that while they lasted they fatally injured the character of the workingmen, leading them to drunkenness and coarseness, and making them neglect their labor, so that when they were again employed they were not as faithful workers as before. Although the strikes at a later period of prosperity, when every kind of work was in demand, were successful, they did much more harm than good.

The enthusiasm which was kindled by the French war in 1870 of course roused the patriotism of the whole nation excepting the German Socialists, whose deputies in 1870 abstained from voting when the Government asked for the necessary war funds, and who, in 1871, openly celebrated the Paris communards as martyrs slain by the party of order. Thus only one Socialist (Bebel) found his way into the Reichstag of 1871. In January, 1874, however, when the new elections took place, the panic of 1873 had already taken hold of the people and dampened their feelings. On that occasion not less than 350,000 votes were polled for the Socialists, who thus obtained nine deputies, six of whom were elected in Saxony, two in Holstein, and one in Elberfeld and Barmen. Bebel and Liebknecht now became the real leaders of the German Social-Democracy. The former, a native of Cologne and a turner at Leipzig, was originally an adversary of Lassalle, but had been converted into a fervent Socialist by Liebknecht, who while a young student became a political refugee in 1848, and in London was a disciple of Marx. Schweitzer having retired in 1872, and having become a successful dramatist, Bebel and Liebknecht in May, 1875, succeeded in uniting the hitherto two hostile wings, the Lassalle and the Marx school, into one great and undivided Social-Democratic party. While the Lassalle wing was originally not interna-



tional, but rather German and national, and asked for the subvention of Government, the communistic wing of Marx was international and treated the whole of society (workingmen excepted) as one great reactionary mass, with which in his eyes there is not the least community of interest. As it often happens with such amalgamations, here also the more moderate shades were eliminated by the radical tendencies, so that in the new party communism and internationalism prevailed. The *Vorwärts* (Forward) at Leipzig was made the official organ of the new party, and at the same time in Gotha a platform was laid down to which I will recur more fully hereafter.

The united Social-Democrats now thoroughly organized for the new Reichstag of 1877. This time they elected twelve deputies, for whom 485,000 votes were given—i.e., nearly forty per cent. more than in 1874. Besides this victory they showed their strength by running 175 candidates in the 397 electoral districts of the German Empire; but it is worth while mentioning that in all Southern Germany, where manufactures are less developed than in the north, they didn't carry a single election. Seven of the above twelve seats belong to the kingdom of Saxony, with its large manufacturing population, two to the city of Berlin, one to Holstein, one to Rhenish Prussia, where the city of Solingen was won with the assistance of the Roman Catholics, and one to Reuss, a principality of 47,000 inhabitants in all.

The secret of this success lies in the good organization and agitation of the Social-Democrats. They make it their chief object to prepare beforehand and to send all their men to the polls, while the average of the other electors seldom amounts to more than fifty per cent. In the six districts of the city of Berlin alone in 1876 they held 307 meetings for electioneering purposes, 144 for drilling the managers, and distributed 1,347,154 pamphlets. At the same time the party employs a standing and well-paid staff for the purpose of exciting the masses and winning new members. According to a statement made at the Gotha yearly meeting of 1876, it had fifty-four fully-paid agents and eight permanent agitators, each of whom received 135 marks (about \$32) monthly, besides 2 to 3 marks travelling expenses. Fourteen other agitators were paid an additional contribution of 25 to 75 marks per month; 150 marks are monthly paid to each of the two secretaries, 105 to the cashier, and 45 to each of the two assessors; to Liebknecht and Hasenclever, as editors of the *Vorwärts*, 2,340 marks yearly, and, besides, 9 marks per day as members of the Reichstag. Immediately before the last election twenty-four agitators received full pay. From August, 1876, till May, 1877, the general treasurer of the party paid out a round sum of 50,000 marks; at the same time the permanent agitation funds expended 12,856 marks, the central administration spent 6,133 marks, and the local committees at Altona and Berlin respectively 30,000 and 15,548 marks for their successful campaign of 1877.

If in that election the number of Social-Democratic deputies had kept pace with the increase of their votes over that of 1874, thirty-two Social-Democrats instead of twelve must have become members of the Reichstag. But as the party is spread all over Germany their vote was too much split up, and seventy-seven per cent. of it was lost, so that only twenty-three per cent. decided the election of their candidates. The other parties being more concentrated in their respective districts have a great advantage over them, and thus only lost thirty-three per cent. of their votes. In 1877, in all 5,535,000 (out of a population of 42,000,000) were polled, of which 3,600,000 votes elected the 397 successful candidates.

The Social-Democratic deputies take little active part in the proceedings of the Reichstag. On the whole, they consider their membership as a convenient means of proclaiming their ideas from the tribune of the highest legislative German assembly. Here they are safe and free from any censure; here they cannot be made responsible by the district attorney, however revolutionary their language may be. The members of the Reichstag drawing no salary, and having during its sessions only a free pass on all the German railroads, the Social-Democratic deputies make the most of this privilege in travelling all over the country, in lecturing, in holding mass-meetings, and in working generally for the interest of their party. Thus there are seldom more than two or three of their number in the Reichstag, and it has often happened that even important bills which had been introduced by them were discussed and voted on in their absence. Some of these deputies even consider the participation in parliamentary debates as treason to their party, and as too great a condescension to the other, in their eyes, reactionary parties, as such participation would lead their followers to the belief that "Bismarck's Reichstag" could solve the problem. The more tolerant view,

however, was finally successful. The few speeches of Social-Democrats the Reichstag had to bear were mechanical recitals of Marx and Lassalle's sayings, learned by heart by all the communistic disciples, but very seldom were social or political questions practically handled. Bebel thus far is their only decent speaker who has been able to command the attention of the house. To give you the latest instance of the self-conceit and impudence of these men, a certain John Most, a bookbinder by profession, and a Saxon member of the Reichstag, in a public meeting of workingmen held last year at Berlin attacked Theodor Mommsen, the celebrated Roman historian, for having falsified Roman history in the interest of the ruling classes. The day after that meeting the Social-Democratic papers said that Most had convicted Mommsen of utter ignorance as well as bad faith, and had ruined his reputation as a scholar for ever.

While I am writing these lines the campaign for the new Reichstag is raging all over the country. As you already know, Bismarck dissolved its predecessor because it would not vote the bill for the prosecution of Social aims and tendencies which he had brought in, in consequence of Hödel's attempt on the Emperor's life. Two hundred and fifty-one deputies against fifty-seven refused to pass a law which, in its loose indefiniteness, could be interpreted at pleasure, and which, besides, was deemed unacceptable, as it made unnecessary exceptions where the common law, when vigorously applied, would have sufficed. The Government will ask new powers from the next Reichstag, in order to suppress Socialism. Whether they will be granted is a question of the future. At present all minds are occupied with the chances of the Socialists in the coming elections. I do not think that, as some believe, the Socialists will be crushed, but at the same time I do not think that they will conquer new seats. On the contrary, they will perhaps lose a few, but reappear at the polls in their old strength. The middle classes will probably vote in greater numbers than before. If only twenty to thirty per cent. more than at previous elections would do their political duty this time not a single Socialist could be elected; but they are too much divided among themselves, and too much stress is laid by the Liberal and Conservative parties on trifling differences of opinion. On the other hand, the Social-Democrats know that they fight for their existence, and thus far they have not yet been deprived of their means of warfare.

## Correspondence.

### "SCHOOL-HUNTER" AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have found a good deal of instruction in the numerous communications you have kindly sent me, replying to my letter to the *Nation* in No. 682. Many of these were from teachers or heads of schools, and of these far the greater part approve of my demand, but confess that either, 1st, they have not the means necessary to establish such a girls' school as I roughly described; or, 2d, and oftener, that the public would not sustain such a school. I suspect this last plea is correct. The American public wants to rush its daughters through school, get as many "accomplishments" as it can in a few years, and then turn them out into "society"; and, as American girls are charming no matter how ignorant they may be, and as until they marry and bear children they are undoubtedly pretty, and much more than pretty, the present system answers the purpose of parents. But girls brought up with little or no regard to their physical health fade very rapidly after marriage, become the prey of "women's diseases" and doctors, and too often live out lives of debility and untimely decay. Men have learned that sound health is the only important stock in trade for them, and that with life and good health a man may achieve almost anything he wishes. But good, robust, lasting health is even more important for women than for men, because a woman's life, in any station, is harder than a man's, more wearing on the constitution, more difficult to regulate in accordance with the laws of health. I think, therefore, that girls ought to leave school with a better foundation of health than boys even; and why should they not? They are more easily controlled; they are not prone to the smoking, drinking, and other vices which undermine the health of a large part of our young men. It is possible to bring up girls simply and regularly, and by persistent training during the school years to give them the health and fix them in the healthful habits which would last them during their after lives.

Some of those whose replies you have sent me think I want girls to be

ignorant and stupid. Well, no; but I don't want them to be so ill-trained as to fancy they know what they don't know. If a school shows a boy or girl what he or she does *not* know, that is a very great good accomplished. At twenty, I repeat, nobody can know much. If at twenty any of my girls have a strong love of knowledge, or even of any one tolerably limited branch of knowledge, I shall not care how little they know. American girls lack bodies. My object was to discover a school where this defect will be in a measure remedied. I am not afraid about their brains; with sound bodies their brains will do.

I have received several letters which seem to demand somewhat more than this general and public reply. I hope these friendly correspondents will kindly excuse me if I remain to them simply your obliged and instructed

SCHOOL-HUNTER.

## Notes.

R. WORTHINGTON will shortly publish 'Pleasant Ways in Science,' by Richard N. Proctor.—Mr. T. Y. Crowell, of this city, has published Shakspeare's works in one volume for a very moderate price. He has, as he says, "adopted the text of Messrs. Clark & Wright," or, in other words, he has made a page-for-page fac-simile of their "Globe Edition," originally published in England by Macmillan & Co., and in 1866 in this country, by arrangement, by Roberts Bros. We should not suppose Mr. Crowell's enterprise would be agreeable to either of these houses, in spite of his having added a concordance of familiar quotations and an index to the *dramatis personæ*.—Geo. Routledge & Sons announce for publication at an early day Memorials of 'Baroness Bunsen,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, author of 'Walks in Rome,' etc.—We have received from Henry Holt & Co. an index to Mrs. Brassey's 'Around the World in the Yacht *Sunbeam*'; any one can obtain a copy without charge by applying to the publishers. It is very full, and readily pasted into the book.—The Twenty-sixth Annual Report of the Boston Public Library shows a remarkably creditable record in regard to loss of books. Out of 11,723 volumes issued, but one has been lost; various branches with an aggregate circulation of 275,654 have lost none, while South Boston has lost but one out of 140,677. The library, since the resignation of Mr. Justin Winsor, has been under the care of Dr. Samuel A. Green. The report calls attention to the decay of bindings owing to bad ventilation, which is also the case at the Harvard College and the Boston Athenæum libraries. A new building is necessary for this and many other reasons, and it is recommended by the examining committee that the Massachusetts Legislature be petitioned to give "an entire square of the Back Bay Lands, now belonging to the State, to the city of Boston, where a new building for the Public Library can be erected which shall not only be convenient, commodious, quiet, and well ventilated, but isolated and absolutely fire-proof." The catalogue work has been unusually important; the Ticknor catalogue is approaching completion, and the printing of the Barton catalogue, embracing the Shaksperian portion, is in hand and will be steadily continued. The Library's Bulletin 46 continues the Check-list for American Local History from Philadelphia to Plymouth, and has a timely bibliographical section on Trees and Forests, and another on the Eastern Question.—The first annual report of the U. S. Entomological Commission on the Rocky Mountain Locust has just been issued from the Government Printing-office. It is a monument of industry and scientific achievement, and fills, with the appendices, nearly 800 pages. Maps, plates, and cuts complete the information contained in the text, which is of the most practical character. Not only should the Western farmer (west and southwest of the meridian of St. Paul, 93°) be grateful for this equipment against future ravages, but we are laying the Canadians under some obligations. Looking at the range of the locusts north of the line, and remembering how our "hot waves" and "cold waves" come from Manitoba, one finds a new argument in favor of annexation.

—Mr. Parkman's article in the last *North American* receives an instructive commentary this week in the publication of Dr. Dale's 'Impressions of America,' and Mr. Emerson's lecture, delivered in the Old South Church, March 30, 1878, on the 'Fortune of the Republic.' The former is probably familiar to our readers, since it is the collection of widely circulated magazine articles; the latter has had only a limited audience. Both are the expression of men whose scholarship and thoughtfulness will obtain a hearing as readily as the *North American* critic, and from neither would one learn to despair of the republic. In Mr. Emerson's lecture there

are hard blows, criticisms upon American life and manners almost savage in their cold plainness of speech, and yet there is a hopefulness and charity illumining the whole with a kindly light. One must be an idealist, it is true, to follow with sympathy such lines as these: "Pennsylvania coal-mines, and New York shipping, and free labor, though not idealists, gravitate in the ideal direction"; but the American as well as the philosopher is clearly speaking in the whole lecture, and his countrymen can be only grateful to the most thoughtful of American authors that, at the close of a life which has witnessed so much of ill report in American politics and society, he sees "the felicity without example that has rested on the Union thus far," and finds "new confidence for the future." Laying aside this characteristic book to take up Dr. Dale's three essays, one finds the material foundation of the poet's conclusions. It is true that Dr. Dale, going westward only to Chicago and southward only to Richmond saw only the best side of our civilization; but inside these points one sees from these observations of a foreigner that, in comparison with other countries, America has met with creditable success in securing the ends of government—the comfort and intelligence of the people—even if its method by universal suffrage is as radically and viciously wrong as the historian of the Canadas represents it.

—In the July *Blackwood's* are some etymological derivations that will afford a grim pleasure to any amateur in philology whose eyes are not yet accustomed to the half-lights that obscure quite as much as they illumine the origin of words. One would hardly look to the Gaelic, with its uncouth accumulation of letters, for the source of what we had always supposed our native American word "boss," but so it is—*bos* in Gaelic meaning "the hand" or "directing power." The adjective "bloody," now become vulgar, but in use in the letters of Swift and Gray, has no "sanguinary origin," but is from *bloide*, meaning "a bit, a piece," and "seems to have been not much stronger than 'somewhat.'" "My eye," which is still heard among children, is traced to *mo-dhoigh*, an exclamation of delight. "Tory" from *toir*, "to give," and Whig from *tuig*, "to know," are interesting. Two suggestions upon Shaksperian words are more worthy of attention:

"Thou want'st a rough *pash*,"

in "Winter's Tale," is traced to *bathais* (of which *pash* is almost an exact pronunciation), "the forehead." The word *ronyon*, in "Macbeth," is derived from *roinneach*, "hairy," an etymology which gives a fit sense at all events. There is other interesting matter in this article to which we refer those of our readers who are not inclined to take learning always *au sérieux*. The same class will find in the August *Cornhill* an article on "The First Edinburgh Reviewers," which will relieve them from any unpleasant recollection of having found the collected essays of these critics tedious reading. Jeffrey is summed up thus: "He is a brilliant, versatile, and at bottom liberal and kindly man of the world; but he never gets fairly beyond the border line which inevitably separates lively talent from original power." This criticism is very just; it is only strange that Jeffrey should still stand in the minds of so many intelligent men as the type of a good critic. The whole article is marked in a rare degree by close, accurate, and discriminating thought.

—Two years ago (see the *Nation*, No. 562) we reviewed briefly the 'History of Landholding in England,' by Mr. Joseph Fisher, of Waterford. He has just issued a companion volume, somewhat larger (135 pages), upon the 'History of Landholding in Ireland.' This has the merits and faults of its predecessor—a valuable collection of facts and documents, and considerable insight, joined with a want of clearness in arrangement and statement, and a defective knowledge of the results of scholarship in this field. Altogether it is a more valuable treatise than the other, inasmuch as Mr. Fisher is here upon his native soil, so that the early portion, which was poorest in the English volume, is on the whole good here. He understands Tanistry and the Irish sept better than the institutions of the Anglo-Saxons. Even here, however, his treatment—except for abundance of excerpts—is less satisfactory than that of Sir Henry Maine. As in the other volume, he is by far best in the late period, and especially the section upon "The Stuart or Confiscation Period" is well worth study. It is not always, however, clearly intelligible, and the reader would do well to compare Mr. Seebohm's instructive paper in the *Fortnightly* for 1869. Very oddly, on page 14 he has given the English definition for gavelkind, although the Irish institution is clearly described on the same page in a citation from Sir John Davis.

—The *Revue Politique* publishes a long and interesting address of M. Marc Monnier, who has just been made rector of the Academy of Geneva.





on "Rousseau Abroad." He traces his influence on many authors, with anecdotes and extracts, and sums up the line of his intellectual progeny thus: Kant, Herder, Basedow, Jacoby, Goethe, Schiller, Filangieri, Foscolo, Byron, and even Dickens and Thackeray, who are of the same family; and among Frenchmen, Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, Châteaubriand, Lamennais, and the authors of 'Obermann' and 'Lélia.' Truly, Thackeray is in somewhat singular company. It is a pity M. Monnier had not space to point out the particular vein of thought which Thackeray derived from Rousseau.

—"In the present International Exhibition," writes a correspondent from Paris, "the book trade makes about the same display as it made in Philadelphia two years ago. Here, as there, the English exhibit is little or nothing; two illustrated periodicals advertise themselves abundantly; there is the new 'Cyclopædia Britannica,' and in addition to this nothing but a few Bibles and tracts. The German Empire is absent. France and the United States have, as it were, changed places. The French trade is, as a matter of course, present in full force, while the American display is confined to the few hastily collected books placed under the charge of M. Terquem, who acts now for the American publishers in France, as he did two years ago for the French publishers in America. The Parisian publishers have presented their works to great advantage; from the tall and liberal bookcases of the MM. Hachette and the MM. Mame to the smaller cases of their humbler rivals, all are set forth with skill and taste. Perhaps the best impression is given by the modest but choice collections of M. Jouaust and of M. Lemerre. Both these houses devote themselves to a kind of work almost unknown in America, but becoming more and more common and popular in France. The Contemporary Poets of M. Lemerre and the 'Petits Chefs-d'œuvre' of M. Jouaust are a delight to the eye and the hand of a book-lover. The volumes are small and light, the paper is fine and firm, the type is clear and of an antique style, the initials, headings, and *cuts-de-lampe* are fanciful and in good taste; the illustrations, when there are any, are etchings—a form of artistic endeavor exactly fitted for the adorning of books as graceful in all their parts as these. No American publisher, I fear, would find his account in the issuing of books like these or like the 'Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique' of M. Jouaust; not that American taste and skill and the resources of American typography are not equal to their production, but because the sale would be small and the expense enormous. In time we may come to have a class taking delight in books as books—a class large enough to give fair support to any publisher who shall seek to reprint the minor masterpieces of literature with the luxury of type and paper befitting their merit. In the ordinary book of the trade, the staple article of commerce, American publishers hold their own, and it will be a surprise and a disappointment to those who have examined the American books here if one of the greater rewards of the Exhibition is not distributed either to the collective exhibit of the American book trade or to one of the more important houses contributing to it. The jury spent three days over the books and seemed to be greatly pleased. The American member of the jury is Mr. Stevens; the English is Mr. Leighton. The catalogue of the American exhibit, printed by the Riverside Press, is a fine specimen of American work. It contains three explanatory articles by Mr. R. R. Bowker on 'Books and the Book Trade in America,' on 'Trade Bibliography,' and on 'The Library System.' These articles are faced by their translation into French—a translation not always absolutely exact, but sufficiently so to introduce foreigners, and especially Frenchmen, to the manners and customs of American readers. The information on the library system is likely to be of service; it is a subject in which the French take an interest, and articles on the subject have already appeared in the *Bibliographie de la France*, the *French Publishers' Weekly*. Following Mr. Bowker's articles are sixty pages of catalogue, in which are represented more than twenty American publishers, including all of the largest and most important houses. Owing to the restricted space allotted to the collective book exhibit the cases are of necessity tall and crowded, but facilities are afforded for examining the books, and the American has no reason to be ashamed of them. Noticeable, by the way, in the French exhibit are the half-a-dozen almost simultaneous editions of 'Manon Lescaut,' from which it might be inferred that of all the minor French classics this sole surviving relic of the Abbé Prévost is the most popular; but the inference would be altogether erroneous."

—The fourth series of the 'Théâtre de Campagne' and the third series of the somewhat rival 'Saynètes et Monologues' have appeared almost simultaneously. The comparison is altogether to the advantage

of the earlier work, which, although it no longer bears the name of Legouvé as its editor, continues to be conducted with skill, while the field of 'Saynètes et Monologues' seems to be rapidly exhausting itself. The monologue at best just escapes monotony, and in the volume before us it is not at its best: with the exception of the bright bit of versification, "Les Tentations d'Antoine" of M. Jacques Normand, they rarely rise above the level of a recitation more or less amusing, and between a recitation, however good, and a monologue (which, we take it, must be a genuine play with but one part) the gulf is vast. Nor are the *saynètes* of sufficient merit to redeem the series. Neither M. Labiche nor M. Verconsin is seen to advantage, and perhaps the liveliest little scene in the volume is the rather extravagant but undeniably comic "Dame de Niort" of "Quatrelles." In the 'Théâtre de Campagne' MM. Labiche and Verconsin make a better appearance, but by far the best of the eight comedies in the volume is "Volte-Face," by M. Emile Guiard, a nephew of M. Emile Augier, to whom the play is dedicated. Here is an instance for Mr. Galton: M. Augier himself is the grandson of Pigault-Lebrun; one of his nephews, M. Paul Deroulède, a great-grandson of Pigault-Lebrun, is the author of many patriotic lyrics and also of the poetic drama, "L'Hetman," represented a year or two ago at the Odéon; and now M. Emile Guiard, another grandson of the novelist of the First Empire, comes forward as a dramatist and gives proof of the possession of a share, at least, of the vivid and vigorous versification of his uncle. "Volte-Face" is not fresh in subject, but it is lightly handled and brightly written, and may be recommended to all American amateur actors who are equal to French verse. It has recently, it may be noted, been acted with success at the Comédie-Française. Next in interest in this volume to M. Guiard's verse is the prose of M. André Theuriet, who is beginning to be known to the American public by the translations of his novels in the "Collection of Foreign Authors" of the Messrs. Appleton. His "Vieille Maison," in the second series of the 'Théâtre de Campagne,' resembles a little his "Fraises" in this. There is a homely country air about both of them, and in the latter a sort of poetic suggestion, not often to be found in plays of one act, which only too frequently reflect but the glitter and the glare of society. It may be as well to remark that, with the possible exception of M. Albert Millaud's "Cellier d'Or," there is no play here which may not be read aloud in American families without fear; a remark which might have been made also of the three other volumes of the series, and which therefore bears strongly against the current opinion as to the immorality of the French drama of to-day.

—Students of the Italian Renaissance will be glad to learn that a third edition of Burckhardt's invaluable work has been prepared, the first volume of which recently appeared with the title, 'Die Cultur der Renaissance in Italien' (Leipzig 1877). The author, who is still living, committed the preparation of the new edition to Ludwig Geiger, a profound scholar, whose excellent life of Petrarch was noticed in the *Nation*, No. 501. The editor has left the text practically as the author wrote it, making a few additions where required by newly-discovered material. The notes, however, have been almost entirely rewritten, and their value and volume greatly increased. This increase in extent has led the editor to place them at the end of each division of the work, of which there are three in the first volume. This, of course, renders reference to the notes very inconvenient, and important citations are apt to be overlooked. A few changes have been made in the form of the book; it has been divided into two volumes and the long divisions are separated into chapters, all of which is an improvement over the older editions. It is hardly necessary to say a word in praise of a work so well known as Burckhardt's. No one has ever penetrated more deeply into the spirit of the period he describes, or gained such a subtle appreciation of its problematical characters. The second volume, which, we are glad to say, will be accompanied by an index, is to appear shortly. It is curious that so important a work, the first edition of which appeared as long ago as 1860, should not have been translated into Italian until 1876, when a version by Prof. Valbusa, in two volumes, was published by Sansoni at Florence.

—In connection with the foregoing we may mention an interesting and valuable study by Professor Adolfo Bartoli on the forerunners of the Renaissance ('I Precursori del Rinascimento,' Florence, 1877). The writer shows that the so-called Renaissance of Charlemagne was not worthy the name, and proceeds to trace from an earlier date the spirit of enlightenment that gave birth to the true Renaissance of the fifteenth century. He discovers this spirit in many of the chroniclers, and shows the gradual return of thought to the models of classic times from the works of such scholars as Walter of Châtillon and Vincent of Beauvais.

The most important manifestation of the new spirit, however, the author sees in the Latin songs of the vagabond scholars, the *Goliardi*, who spared no one in their bitter rhymes, and sang of love and wine in a most modern vein. After the *Goliardi* comes the poem of Renart, and the long line of satirists who used the new languages to such effect. Professor Bartoli then returns to Italy and points out how that country differed from the rest of Europe in being non-feudal and pagan. The great eyes of Alexander and Arthur took no root in Italy. To quote the author's words, "No interest was felt in Renart, little in Charlemagne, none in the Pope, except to hurl at him the words of Arnaldo." In the various departments of mediæval literature which were most pleasing to the other Romance nations Italy has but little to show, and that little is imitation; and, finally, the Italians were the last to abandon the use of Latin. This essay is full of vigor and freshness, and forms part of the general introduction to the author's '*Storia della Letteratura Italiana*,' now in press, the appearance of which is eagerly looked for.

#### PROFESSOR ELLA'S MUSICAL SKETCHES.\*

SOME people not only keep diaries in which they record all the important and unimportant events of their lives, but also scrap-books into which they paste all the long and short articles which in the course of many years they have contributed to the newspapers. Professor Ella appears to have been one of these persons. His musical diary covers a period of fifty-six years; and as during a great part of this time he was one of the most prominent of London musicians, and came in frequent contact with Mendelssohn, Meyerbeer, Berlioz, Auber, Gounod, and many other prominent masters, it is evident that it must contain many interesting reminiscences and anecdotes. The present Sketches consist partly of selections from this diary, and partly of extracts from the printed records of the Musical Union—a society for performing classical chamber music, founded by Professor Ella in 1845. They do not lay claim to the rank of critical and æsthetic essays, like those of Schumann, which Mrs. Ritter has recently translated, but they simply form a volume of musical gossip which, though containing little that is positively instructive to an educated musician, may yet be recommended as entertaining summer reading. In a musical library such a book will take the place of the "item" column in a newspaper. Reflection does not seem to be the author's strong point. His style becomes crude and labored when he attempts to appear wise and erudite, as in some of the essays in the first part, which might have been omitted to the advantage of the author no less than the reader. Fortunately the rest of the book consists chiefly of gossip which is thoroughly interesting, as it introduces many curious facts not generally known. For instance, in a paper on itinerant musicians we are told that in Vienna these banes of society are suppressed altogether, while at Milan the police have orders to remove all organ-grinders whose instruments are not perfectly in tune. This may account for the fact that all hand-organs heard in this country are so horribly out of tune. Evidently all the banished Milanese straightway emigrate to this country, where all are free and equal and all nuisances are tolerated.

Another one of the sketches illustrates how rigorously at the Paris Conservatoire concerts the praiseworthy rule is observed of excluding late-comers till the end of the overture. The Professor arrived late one evening, and, after vainly endeavoring to persuade or bribe Madame to let him enter, he was at last consoled when she pointed to a venerable-looking gentleman seated in the corridor, and added: "Vous voyez, M. Auber n'entre pas; il est trop tard." Of the celebrated orchestra at this institution Professor Ella observes: "Thrice have I visited all the best concerts in Germany; and, after twenty-seven years' experience in the best bands of London, I am bound to award the palm to the Conservatoire orchestra." In regard to London orchestras he elsewhere says: "I have still to repeat the melancholy fact that there is not a single complete orchestra in England composed entirely of English musicians, while in all those countries where a national academy is supported for gratuitous education of musicians—in France, Belgium, Germany, Austria, and Italy—there is no lack of talent to furnish any number of complete orchestras with native musicians." Of course London has all the foreign musicians she cares for, and more too. The city is crowded with adventurers of all sorts, who are attracted by the high prices paid for tuition. Professional musicians may be interested in the following comparative list of the prices charged by eminent music-teachers in various

European cities. In London, where Rubinstein has refused two guineas an hour, one guinea is a common fee; in Paris, 18 shillings; Brussels, 8½ shillings; Vienna, 6 shillings; Stuttgart and Milan, 4 shillings. These terms may have undergone some modification since this table was collated. That Rubinstein should have refused two guineas an hour will not surprise any one who knows that in a tour throughout England, Scotland, and Ireland last year the great pianist realized in three months \$60,000. "No such amount was ever obtained by vocalist or actor in England in the same space of time." Certainly Rubinstein, so far, can have scarcely made the tenth part of that sum by the sale of his compositions. We recently remarked that composers are the worst-paid producers in the world; in this book we have come across two cases which may seem exceptions to this rule. Offenbach is said to have realized in one year upwards of \$40,000 by the rights of authorship and the sale of his works; and the proceeds from the sale of Balfe's ballad, "The Light of Other Days," amounted to more than \$30,000. But these exceptions are only apparent, as neither of these composers ranks higher than third-rate.

Professor Ella does not often express a positive opinion or an adverse criticism. There are some nuisances in the musical world, however, against which he takes a firm stand. Prominent among these is the encore nuisance. Encores unduly prolong an entertainment; they make unreasonable demands on an artist, and show the tyranny of the majority, or sometimes a decided minority, of the audience over the rest, who would prefer to pass on to something else. Few artists have the courage of the famous double-bass player, Dragonetti, who refused to respond to an encore until the manager had promised to pay him ten guineas extra. Unfortunately, instead of an imposition, an encore has come to be regarded as a compliment to a performer, and those soloists who are not called upon to do double duty are actually disappointed, and either find fault with the audience or comment on the acoustic defects of the hall, which prevented them from using the "encore piece," which they invariably bring along and rehearse as carefully as the piece on the programme. At private and semi-private entertainments there are always certain cliques who take care that their favorite shall not suffer any such disappointment. We recently attended a *matinée* at a leading American conservatory where almost every one of the fifteen or twenty pieces on the programme was encored. Each performer had a special circle of friends, who would not cease applauding until their willing victim had made his or her reappearance; and after a few had been thus recalled it would of course have been considered disgraceful by the other family circles in the house if their special protégé had not also been recalled. The result was that the entertainment was prolonged to four hours, the last one of which was a perfect torture to those who had the courage to keep their seats till the end. But, like the barbarous method of applauding in vogue by clapping hands and kicking the floor, we suppose the encore nuisance will flourish until audiences are composed entirely of artists—perhaps a week or so before the millennium.

We have found few things in the 'Sketches' not in perfect taste or with which we could not thoroughly agree. We were surprised, however, to find the author quoting, and to all appearance endorsing, Schlegel's silly remarks on the opera, of which the following is a specimen:

"The costume of the opera ought to be dazzling and overlaid with ornaments; and hence many things that have been censured as unnatural, such as exhibiting heroes warbling and trilling in the excess of despondency, are perfectly justifiable. . . . Neither is it any disadvantage to us that the opera is conveyed in a language which is not generally understood," etc.

There is also a statement on page 146 which we must question. Prof. Ella says he can never admit that the German language is a whit better for music than the English. It would be difficult to find many vocalists who would agree with this statement, provided they are equally familiar with the two languages; and every song-composer knows how very difficult it is to find an English poem musical enough in structure to serve as a basis for a song. For conversational purposes English is perhaps a more elegant language than German; but the German language, perhaps on account of its more natural system of accentuation, is better adapted for metrical and rhythmical treatment. There is in the lyrics of Heine and Goethe a natural flow and elegance which one seldom finds in English verse; and even the minor German poets in this respect surpass their English *confrères*, who in the other qualities required of a poet are decidedly their superiors. In one of his admirable chapters on poetry Schopenhauer relates how, as a boy, for a long time he took great delight in poetry, merely on account of its

\* 'Musical Sketches Abroad and at Home. By Professor Ella.' New York: E. Schubert & Co. 1878. Pp. 440.



*Wohlklang*, before he discovered that these charming metrical sounds and rhymes were also invariably intended to convey ideas and sentiments. We doubt if this is a common experience among Englishmen.

*Gaddings with a Primitive People.* Being a series of Sketches of Tyrolean Life and Customs. By W. A. Baillie Grohman. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.)—Whoever is a lover of the picturesque in life or nature, especially whoever delights in seeing human nature revealing itself under simple conditions, will find this a book after his own heart. Mr. Grohman has lived for many years among the Tyrolese, and writes of them with the enthusiasm of one who loves and rejoices in their primitive customs. He wears the Tyrolean garb, and has so assimilated himself to their mode of life that he gains easy and cordial admission to their circles. He has hunted the chamois and the blackcock in their most retired glens and on their loneliest peaks, and he brings back pictures of hunter-life that are rarely equalled in interest. He is also a hunter of curiosities—Venetian glass, rare carvings in oak, chiselled mural decorations of the Renaissance, and embroidered altar-cloths, which are still found stored away in village church-lofts—and he has many amusing anecdotes of his adventures and finesse in this search. It is, however, when he describes, with admirable simplicity and directness, the sad and pleasant incidents of daily peasant-life that he is at his best and is most entertaining. One is struck in reading these pages with the extreme simplicity of the lines on which, after all, human life runs. Daring adventure, rivalry, simple grief and faith, love and the pleasures of domestic life, are the web which these peasants weave, and their life is mainly a happy one, despite their ignorance and the poverty which grinds them with remorseless severity. Every moment and event is attended by religious feeling—superstition if you will, but something which makes life more precious to them. One recalls Aubrey de Vere's "Building of the Cottage" in reading the chapter on "Priesthood and Superstition":

"Mix the mortar o'er and o'er,  
Holy music singing;  
Holy water o'er it pour,  
Flowers and tresses flinging.  
Bless we now the earthen floor:  
May good angels love it!  
Bless we now the new-raised door,  
And that cell above it!"

This spirit pervades their life among this primitive people; yet it would be wrong to suppose that there is not much of a very coarse sort among them. The "scooping-out of an eye" seems to be a practice heightened in skill by long hereditary use, though it is but fair to say that the author compares it in his preface with wife-beating in England. The custom of *Fingerhackeln*—where two persons join the middle fingers of their right hands and wrench as a trial of strength until frequently one is maimed for life—and the use of knives, now uncommon, in their love rivalries, are characteristics of savage life. Their mirth, too, is a sort of horse-play, as one might suppose. Perhaps the sketch of the mountain belle is the most attractive. She lives alone in the summer months high up in the glens, caring for her herd, and only her lover now and then breaks her solitude. Mr. Grohman is very tender and manly in his treatment of this theme, and finds in the difficulties of marriage and the character of the lovers a sufficient defence for them. The relations of the youth seem very loose in his narrative, and are so in fact; but nothing else could be expected from the mode of life they follow. The marriage rites afford great amusement. The dances—in one of which the maiden supports her stalwart six-foot lover on her shoulders while he beats the ceiling with his feet—the eating, the rifle-match, and particularly the pranks of the bride's former lovers, give the author opportunity for some of his most vivid sketches.

One could continue to detail the pleasant features of the book to great length. It is enough to say that all who read will take pleasure in the adventurous daring of the poachers, in the devotion and trials of the village doctor, priest, and schoolmaster, and their foibles as well, in the description of the Paradise Play (for the miracle-play still lingers in these solitudes) and of the peasant watering-place, a sketch full of humor. To those who sometimes tire of our gloved civilization, such a book is as good as a ramble in the country. Its only defect is that it is a union of two separate sketches, and the joiner's work is not skilfully done. The one reference to America is amusing. Mr. Grohman had obtained possession of a dozen wooden figures of the Apostles, which he was at loss what to do with until an American expressed a desire to possess them. The village carpenter who boxed them up took the liberty of cutting off noses, backs, foreheads, and feet, in order to make them fit the cases, and in

this shape they were shipped to America as old wood-work of no value. Mr. Grohman soon after received a note from the New York custom-house that they were "art-statuary, and as such come under schedule seventy-seven." At present, he tells us, "they are at rest, half-a-dozen in a brand-new Roman Catholic chapel, and six adorning our friend's house in the same state."

*The Dawn of History: an Introduction to Prehistoric Study.* Edited by C. F. Keary, M.A., of the British Museum. (London: Mozley & Smith. 1878. 12mo, pp. 231.)—Mr. Keary's excellent little book undertakes to sum up and present in a combined and systematized view the principal results of study in the several branches of prehistoric enquiry. Of these there are at least five which have received independent treatment—archæology, language, institutions, religion, and social life. Scientific explorers in these several fields, such as Max Müller, Sir Henry Maine, and Mr. Tylor, hardly trench at all upon each other's fields. It is, therefore, no easy task to take the materials they furnish and construct out of them a truthful and harmonious view of the early ages of mankind. This work has been performed by Mr. Keary and the Misses Keary, on the whole with very good judgment and in an attractive style. The book may be heartily recommended as probably the most satisfactory summary of the subject that there is.

Of course a book of this sort begins to be obsolete as soon as it is written, and it would seem a pity that the authors had not the opportunity to make use of Mr. Morgan's work, which, whether its theories are accepted or not, must be regarded as indispensable to all students in this field. Even his earlier studies, in the *Smithsonian Contributions*, do not appear to have been consulted. This, however, is perhaps a part of the plan; the note on page 221 states that the researches of "McLellan (*sic*) and others" have been designedly passed over, partly as being yet too uncertain in their results, partly as being unsuited to the general reader. Certainly much of this matter is unsuited to the general reader, and, on the other hand, the controversy between Mr. McLellan and Mr. Morgan is as yet *sub judice*; nevertheless, there is an abundance of unquestioned facts brought forward by both these writers which would properly have found a place in chapter vi. ("Early Social Life"). Indeed, with a mass and multiplicity of materials which must have been a serious embarrassment, we find that the most serious gap is exactly there where Mr. Morgan is most instructive—in the points of contact and connection between barbarous and civilized life. The scope of the book is very properly confined, in general, to those branches of the human race which have attained to civilization, with such illustrations from other nations, especially in the opening chapters, as appeared desirable. Here, however, there is an occasional lack of clearness and determinateness; for instance, the village community is represented as distinctively Aryan (p. 101), although M. de Laveleye has pointed out its prevalence among the Javanese.

The best chapters are those upon religion, and the best passage—one of remarkable insight and descriptive power—is the account of the Egyptian religion in chapter viii., by Miss A. Keary. Even in these chapters, however, there is a certain incompleteness. The point of view is that of element-worship, made familiar to us by Max Müller and Mr. Cox, and we do not remember any better presentation of this theory. The personal and local element in the development of myths is not neglected, although it perhaps receives hardly so much attention as it deserves. But ancestor-worship, described with such fulness by Mr. Tylor, and which may almost be said to be the key to M. Coulanges's theory, is hardly noticed at all. Now, this was an element of the very first importance in the religious life of the Greeks and Romans, and it is hard to bring it under the theory of an elementary religion.

The "Notes and Authorities" at the end of the book, although brief, are valuable, especially as showing the spirit in which the studies have been made. In several cases of controversy one theory has been deliberately accepted and presented in the text; but the notes show that this is not a blind or inconsiderate act. Such are the theory that the Aryans introduced into Europe the age of bronze, Curtius's Ionian theory, and the Italic character of the Etruscans.

More doubtful is the view that the god of the sky was the primeval chief divinity of the Aryans (p. 132), which can only be an inference in the case of any but the Greeks and Romans. Neither does the present state of scholarship warrant our calling the early Romans a "mere band of robbers" (p. 207); the very essence of the view of the Roman community introduced by Niebuhr is that the early Romans were not a *colluvies gentium* but an organism, and this is precisely the view for a book like this. The universality of the patriarchal family among the Aryan

nations is also assumed (p. 86)—a view which has been effectually disposed of by Mr. Morgan and Mr. Ernest Young. The "house community," by the way, a very different thing from the "village community," is not mentioned.

There are occasional slips of expression, as *allegorical* for *metaphorical* (p. 112) and *category* for *catalogue* (p. 141); so "passing from the hunter state to that of the pastoral" (p. 32). These, however, are slight blemishes.

*The Atlantic Islands as Resorts of Health and Pleasure.* By S. G. W. Benjamin, author of 'Contemporary Art in Europe,' etc. Illustrated. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1878.)—During the past few years Mr. Benjamin has made summer visits to thirteen of the islands, or island-groups, that may be found between latitudes 25° and 51° upon a map of the Northern Atlantic. Counting southward, they were, upon the west, Newfoundland, the Magdalen Islands, Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton Island, the Isles of Shoals, the Bermudas, and New Providence; upon the east, the Isle of Wight, the Channel Islands, Belleisle-en-Mer, the Azores, Madeira, and Teneriffe. Among this sufficiently-varied assortment of islands Mr. Benjamin finds Madeira and Teneriffe, whether for the purpose of health or pleasure, to be, on the whole, the most attractive places of resort. They are "trade-wind islands"; and in the equability and charm of their climate they yield to no others. In Teneriffe one can choose a temperature according to elevation, by climbing the sides of the mountain—*Thener ifé*, "the white mountain," as the aboriginal Guanches called it, giving its present name to the island. The valley of Orotava, says Mr. Benjamin, "combines more climatic advantages than any other island spot in the Atlantic; the variations of temperature being excessively slight [the range is from 58° to 80° Fahr. near the sea-level], the influence of the mainland imperceptible, and the air dry without the parched aridity of the desert." In the town of Santa Cruz, on the same island, the night-watchmen sing out, every half-hour, "'Ave Maria purissima!' Then they give the hour, and end with 'Sereno' (all serene)." Hence they are commonly nicknamed *serenos*, for it rains so seldom that they forget to change their formula on occasion; "sometimes when it is actually storming they still, from force of habit, shout 'Sereno!'" The scenery, as well as the climate, of Teneriffe is hardly surpassed; according to Humboldt's well-known remark, the view of Orotava valley from the Piton was the finest that he had ever seen. And the historic interest of the island, Mr. Benjamin might have added, is as old as that of the lost histories of Juba, king of Mauritania, or, rather, as old as the time of Pliny, who preserved part of that earliest record of the island. Of the aboriginal Guanches little is left, save their mummies. "Until quite recently," says Mr. Benjamin, "Guanches of purely aboriginal blood were still to be found at Chasna," but the last strain of their blood is now mingling indistinguishably with that of their Spanish conquerors. What, after all, is sadder than "the survival of the fittest"?

Madeira rivals Teneriffe, according to our author, in attractiveness. There one finds a similar climate, scenery less sublime but with perhaps even greater charm, and more of the comforts that an invalid requires; the boarding-houses and the medical attendance are better than in Teneriffe. In the Azores, again, one may pass a summer comfortably, but the winter climate is raw and damp. The Bahamas are rainy, hot, and expensive as compared with the more fortunate islands already mentioned, yet they will serve better for a winter sanitarium than Florida, or, indeed, than any other part of our Atlantic coast, throughout which, from Maine to Key West, the yearly range of temperature at any given spot is comparatively great. The humidity of Bermuda is excessive, and the climate is boisterous and variable. Mr. Benjamin expresses, and justly, a preference for island climates before any Atlantic coast climate, and among the island climates he prefers those that he calls "transatlantic"—those of the groups that lie on the farther side of the water; the nearer to our coast the more trying the climate, is substantially his conclusion.

Mr. Benjamin is in no sense a scientific observer, yet he has made an intelligent and helpful comparison between the various merits and demerits of the different places that he has visited; and persons who may be choosing for health's sake will, we presume, be glad rather than sorry to know that their guide is himself a practical invalid, and not one of your advisers who write from the mere effrontery and wantonness of too good health. He is, on the contrary, an *experimenté*, and descants upon winds, temperatures, and humidity with a certain personal interest and sympathy. It was a mistake to call this a guide-book; in three hundred pages one cannot cover the ground that is here touched upon; the ful-

ness of detail which makes a serviceable guide-book is absent. The larger part of the book, indeed, is personal narrative; the most useful part of it, though it is very careless in style, is the appendix, in which statistics and route directions are given. It is well illustrated, but the maps are small and poor, and there is no chart of the North Atlantic, a clear *desideratum*, and one which should be satisfied in case of another edition. A copy of Bowditch's chart (prefixed to the 'Navigator') would show all of the groups here described, and add not a little to the reader's convenience. The chief part of this book has already appeared in the form of magazine articles. Altogether it will be serviceable in spite of its faults, for it will help the tourist to choose among many islands according to his wants; and it will lead some of them to agree with the author's quaint remark in the appendix: "I am convinced that the love for islands, and especially for small islands, is rational and improving."

*A Critical Account of the Philosophy of Kant*, with an Historical Introduction. By Edward Caird, M.A., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877.)—At last we have a competent English criticism of the 'Critical Philosophy.' Apart from Haywood's and Meiklejohn's translations, for a long time Cousin's little book was the only representation of Kant accessible to English students, and this was a misrepresentation such as only the great Eclectic could be capable of. To the milk of the easy passages abundant water was added, while the difficult ones were carried over pure and simple to the text. Kuno Fischer's commentary, translated by Mahaffy, was open to the opposite objection, that in attempting fully to rewrite Kant it often left the reader doubtful whether he was reading Kant's philosophy or Fischer's. An attempt was therefore made in Prof. Mahaffy's own single volume of rescript, published in connection with his valuable translation of the 'Prolegomena,' to distinguish sections of criticism from those of interpretation by starring the former. In this respect, if not in acuteness of insight, the work was an advance on Fischer's. But both books must have convinced their readers of the radical error involved in their plan. Faithful translation, leaving to the student all the doubts of the original, is precious. Critical examination, if conducted by an able man, is precious. Mixing the two bewilders, and destroys all chance of accurate learning.

Four years ago Mr. W. H. S. Monck, of Dublin, attacked the Kantian stronghold on a different line, by the issue of a capital little 'Introduction to the Critical Philosophy,' a book less known in America than it deserves, whose main fault was the unusual one of brevity. In 170 pages Mr. Monck contrived to give a conception of the outline of Kantianism clearer and more accurate than could possibly be had through one, and probably even through two, readings of the 'Critique' itself. To accomplish this was a feat, and more than this Mr. Monck was modest enough not to attempt.

In 'A Critical Account of the Philosophy of Kant' Prof. Caird, of Glasgow, the eminent successor of Hutcheson, Adam Smith, and Dr. Reid, has aimed at something more scholarly and elaborate than any of his predecessors. He seeks to show the gradual approach to the transcendental point of view made by Kant's mind from the time it was trained in Wolfianism, as it grew through the fifty-seven years preceding the publication of the first edition of the 'Critique,' and then in the 'Critique' itself, as it learned to discard more and more the presuppositions with which that work set out. That these presuppositions were never altogether discarded, that many continued to the last to involve Kant in hopelessly opposed modes of thought, Prof. Caird takes no pains to conceal. Indeed, it is a distinctive feature of his book that his mastery of the subject is such as to enable him to show how much truer Kant might have been to Kant than he actually was. Kant's inconsistencies are indicated not as grounds of reproach but of instruction. He is shown to be often asking questions to which no true answer is given, but on the way to which, half unconsciously to himself, answers are suggested to questions of far more pregnant import. What ordinarily, therefore, appear to the student mere blind difficulties are by this sympathetic evolutionary method exhibited as interesting survivals of rudimentary pre-critical members. The great work is seen to be not a completion of human thought, but rather a discovery, starting human thinking from a new central point. Out of its very imperfections philosophical nutriment is drawn. Mr. Green said well, in his 'Examination of Hume,' that "we best do reverence the genius of philosophers, we most truly appropriate their spirit, in so exploring the difficulties to which their enquiry led as to find in them the suggestion of a theory which may help us to walk



firmly where they stumbled and fell"; and it is in no dissimilar spirit, and from a closely similar philosophical standpoint, that Prof. Caird has examined Kant.

The book is admirably arranged. A long introduction shows how the way for Kant was prepared. Part I. deals with his writings of the pre-critical period, and Part II. with the 'Critique' itself, the ethical and æsthetical works being reserved for a subsequent volume. In discussing the 'Critique,' Kant's argument on any topic—the Æsthetic, the Categories, the Deduction—is first clearly stated, as if from Kant's own point of view, and then a chapter is appended criticising his positions. In these expository chapters there is imaginative skill of a very high order. Kant's case is presented with all the plausibility, with all the ambiguities even, which it had in his own mind, and yet with a grace of style, an easy power of submitting the uncouth technicalities of the original to pleasant English, likely to make anybody despair who has tried by himself to re-think Kant. The same plan of sharply distinguishing exposition and criticism is adhered to throughout. Side-notes accompany the text, and a margin broad enough to entice written comment. An index is added—not so full, however, as would be desirable. Among the more misleading errors of the press may be mentioned *practical* for *pre-critical*, p. 130, l. 2; *space* for *sense*, p. 359, l. 15; *casual* for *causal*, p. 405, l. 16; *all* for *self*, p. 424, l. 33; *Herbertian* for *Herbartian*, p. 479, note.

*The Troubadours: A History of Provençal Life and Literature in the Middle Ages.* By Francis Hueffer. (London: Chatto & Windus. 1878. 8vo, pp. xviii. 367.)—The difficulty of producing a work at once popular and scholarly has been most successfully overcome by Mr. Hueffer, whom we have at last to thank for a thoroughly satisfactory general survey of Provençal literature. The only original English works on the subject, Rutherford's 'The Troubadours, their Loves and Lyrics,' and Miss Preston's 'Troubadours and Trouvères,' have been reviewed in our columns and their shortcomings made known to our readers. Their defects were due to the ignorance of their writers in regard to a very difficult subject. Mr. Hueffer is, on the contrary, admirably equipped for his work; a pupil of Dr. Mahn, he has himself edited the poems of one of the most interesting of the Troubadours, Guillem de Cabestanh (Berlin, 1869), and is perfectly familiar with the history and literature of Provence during the Middle Ages. He disclaims any intention of writing a scientific or exhaustive treatise on the subject, and declares his purpose to be rather to attract learners than to teach more or less proficient students. This object has been very skilfully carried out, and the author's remarkable command of English has enabled him to intersperse his work with admirable metrical translations at once easy and faithful. The work is divided into three parts—general, biographical, and technical. The first part, after a brief notice of the origin of the language, gives a rapid survey of the various classes and forms of the literature, the early popular epics, the artistic epic, and other narrative and didactic poems. One of the most interesting chapters is that containing an account of the romance of Flamenca, a charming mediæval love-story. After disposing of the Courts of Love, Hueffer dwells a moment on the social position of the Troubadours and Joglars, and then passes on to the poetical forms, the *pastorella*, *alba*, *ballada*, *sestina*, *tenso*, *sirventes*, and *canzo*. The second part consists of select biographies of some of the typical Troubadours, Guillem de Cabestanh representing the tender, romantic element, Peire Vidal the restless extravagance, and Bertran de Born the sturdy, warlike spirit of the day. The satirical side of the literature is represented by the Monk of Montaudon, and the anti-papal, reformatory tendency by Guillem Figueira and Peire Cardenal. Hueffer devotes considerable space to the latter movement, which ended so disastrously for the literature and the country, and has left (besides great numbers of individual poems) an epic on the war against the Albigenses and numerous heretical didactic compositions. This part of the work ends with an account of the ladies of Provence and lady Troubadours, whose representative is Beatrice, Countess of Die.

The third part is devoted to the *technique* of Provençal poetry, and is introduced by a learned disquisition on the origin of rhyme which we commend to the careful consideration of those who still hold that we owe rhyme to the Saracens or to the mediæval hymn-writers. The most intricate subject is that of the stanza, which Hueffer treats, as is generally done nowadays, after the principles enunciated by Dante in his 'De vulgari eloquio.' The final chapter contains interlinear versions of two poems (Guillem de Cabestanh's *canzo* 'Li douz cossire' and Marcabrun's idyl 'A la fontana'), addressed, as the author says, "to those easy-

going amateur philologists who believe themselves able to master a language by simply plunging into its literature without any previous study of grammar or dictionary."

It is a pity that the author did not give a somewhat fuller historical sketch of Provence; and a chapter on the influence of the Provençal on the other Romance literatures would not have been out of place. The book is beautifully printed, and the proofs have been carefully read; we notice, however, a few mistakes in proper names: Jauffre for Jaufre, p. ix.; Auclier for Anelier, p. 28; Peinautier for Penautier, p. 176; and Giaufré for Jaufre, p. 318.

*Hammersmith: His Harvard Days.* Chronicled by Mark Sibley Severance. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.)—Much has changed since the days which 'Hammersmith' chronicled, but there is a true echo of Harvard in the book. The openheartedness, the folly and honor of youth left to its own courses, the devotion to the sports and the studies, the charm of the gay throng of class-day, the walks and rides—in these there is not much change, and they are portrayed with a truthfulness and catholicity of taste which raise the book far above the boyishness of 'Fair Harvard' and the vulgarity of 'Student Life at Harvard.' Necessarily it is more of a diary than a novel; but a graceful love tale, interwoven with the more distinctively college life, gives the requisite unity to the story. It is marred by what is apparently a studied imitation of Thackeray, both in the characters and even in the trick of phrase. The uncle from China is altogether in Thackeray's manner; the Fatheringay of 'Pendennis' reappears in Hammersmith's freshmanhood (but that is not unlike the Harvard of to-day), while a mind given to analogies would discern in Bob Ruddiman and Miss Malachite the shadows of Foker and Blanche Amory. But with all this there is also a native excellence, and at the close the enlistment of the young men for the war stirs all the loyal blood in one's veins. The book is one to be enjoyed not only by the budding freshman and recent graduate, but by those who never stepped inside the Yard (we notice that Mr. Severance calls it the "campus," which, now at any rate, exists only at Yale).

*A History of Latin Literature.* By Leonhard Schmitz, LL.D., Classical Examiner in the University of London. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 16mo, pp. 262.)—The veteran Dr. Schmitz has provided the classical teacher with a useful addition to his apparatus in a history of Latin literature which is all that could be desired for purposes of handy reference. A history of the literature of the Roman people as a chapter in the history of the human mind it does not profess to be; neither would this be what the schoolboy needs. The development of the Roman mind, and the various classes of writing as expressions of this development; the influence of foreign philosophy, religion, and literature, of changes in government and social relations; all those things in which the vitality of any literature consists—these are, to be sure, touched upon, but not elaborated with any fulness. The book is devoted in the main to an account of the several writers, grouped on the simplest possible plan—by periods and sub-periods, prose and verse. Thus reference, with the assistance of the index, is exceedingly easy, and the list of authors treated appears to be absolutely complete. All that is known of even the most insignificant is given with sufficient fulness, while Cicero, for instance, receives twenty pages. This completeness is only possible by a very compact treatment, such as none but a thorough and life-long familiarity could put in any person's power. Encyclopædic learning, clear and correct judgment, and familiarity with the practical wants of schools, are illustrated at every point.

This survey of Latin literature is brought down to the sixth century, the last author treated being Isidore of Seville. This will be found a useful feature. Another excellent feature is the reference to editions; but this is not so satisfactorily done, nor, indeed, is it easy to detect any principle governing the selection of editions. One would say that in each case it would be desirable to refer to the best text (or critical edition) and the best edition of notes. Now of Plautus we have mentioned only the two editions of the text of Ritschl and Fleckeisen; of Livy, only Drakenborch and Weissenborn, both with notes—neither Alschefski's nor Madvig's critical edition is mentioned; of Cicero's orations, only Long, Ramsay's 'Pro Cluentio,' and Zumpt's 'De Lege Agraria' and 'Pro Murena.' It seems all a matter of hap-hazard.

*On the Source of Muscular Power.* By Austin Flint, jr., M.D. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 103.)—This little volume is a re-

vised and corrected edition of an article (published in the *Journal of Anatomy and Physiology* for October, 1877) in which the author presents his views on the relation of muscular exercise to the decomposition of albuminoid material in the body. The experimental data which form the basis of the discussion are chiefly observations on the pedestrian Weston, made by the author in 1870 and by Dr. Pavy in 1876, though the classical experiment of Fick and Wislicenus, and the observations of Lehmann and of Parkes, are all considered in the course of the argument. The author concludes that all muscular work is attended with the destruction of muscular substance of which the nitrogen excreted is a measure, and that "nitrogenized food is indirectly a source of power, as by its assimilation by the muscular tissue it repairs the waste and develops the capacity for work." It is, of course, impossible in these columns to enter into a technical criticism of a work of this sort, but it may be well to point out the necessity of caution in drawing physiological conclusions from observations in which the observers have so little control over the conditions of the problem as in these experiments on Weston. The main object of the pedestrian was, of course, the accomplishment of his feat of endurance, and, though he permitted the physiologists to weigh and examine his food and to analyze his excreta, he naturally reserved to himself full liberty of deciding upon the hours of work, rest, and meals, as well as upon the quantity and quality of his food. The physiological problem was thus rendered unnecessarily complicated and the sources of error increased. Moreover, on the fourth day of the walk described by Dr. Flint, "Weston broke down completely. He could not see the track, and was taken staggering to his room, having reached, apparently, the limit of his endurance." It is evident that this condition of exhaustion was essentially pathological, and that the chemical changes accompanying it may well have differed not only in degree but in kind from those associated with normal physiological muscular exertion.

*Ueber natürliche Ventilation, etc.* [On Natural Ventilation and the Porosity of Building Materials.] By C. Lang. (Stuttgart: Meyer & Zeller; New York: B. Westermann & Co. Pp. 119.)—This little volume bears the characteristic stamp of that school of

German science which has produced it. Its topic is reviewed thoroughly and clearly, though the author has been tempted occasionally to digress while refuting objections raised against theories proposed by him in a former paper. Natural ventilation is a term first used, we believe, by Von Pettenkofer for the permeation of the walls, ceiling, and floor of an enclosed space by air. Mr. Lang has made his well-arranged book especially valuable by the publication of new and precise methods of determination, and of tables which give the porousness and permeability of our usual building materials—points which seldom receive due consideration.

\*. Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Bateman (Dr. F.), <i>Darwinism Tested by Language</i> .....	(Scribner & Welford) \$3 00
Boston <i>Herald</i> and its History.....	(Boston) .....
Bynner (E. L.), <i>Tritons: a Tale</i> .....	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.) 1 25
Gibbons (Rev. J.), <i>The Faith of Our Fathers</i> .....	(John Murphy & Co.) 1 00
Cushing (W.), <i>Index to the North American Review, 1815-1877</i> .....	(Cambridge) .....
Dale (Rev. R. W.), <i>Impressions of America, swd.</i> .....	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
Dryden (J.), <i>Poetical Works, 2 vols.</i> .....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 3 50
Emerson (R. W.), <i>Fortune of the Republic</i> .....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 50
Gladstone (W. E.), <i>Literature Primer: Homer</i> .....	(D. Appleton & Co.) .....
Kirkman (M. M.), <i>Baggage-Car Traffic</i> .....	(Railroad Gazette) .....
Longfellow (H. W.), <i>Poems of Places: Asia, 3 vols.</i> .....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 3 00
Lubomirski (Prince), <i>Safar-Hadgi: a Tale</i> .....	(D. Appleton & Co.) 75
L'Art. Vol. XIII., swd.....	(J. W. Bouton) .....
Lights on the Old English Stage, swd.....	(D. Appleton & Co.) 30
MacVicar (Rev. J. G.), <i>Science Primer</i> .....	(Scribner & Welford) 1 75
Mallock (W. H.), <i>The New Paul and Virginia</i> .....	(Scribner, Welford & Armstrong) .....
Milton (J.) and Marvell (A.), <i>Poetical Works, 2 vols.</i> .....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 3 50
Molly Bawn: a Tale.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) .....
Poole (Mrs. S. L.), <i>Twenty Years' Residence among the People of Turkey, swd.</i> .....	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Prior (M.), <i>Poetical Works, 2 vols.</i> .....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 5 50
Reybaud (Mme. C.), <i>The Goldsmith's Wife, swd.</i> .....	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
Savage (J.), <i>Picturesque Ireland, Part 2, swd.</i> .....	(Thomas Kelly) 50
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Thurlet (A.), <i>The House of the Two Barrels: a Tale, swd.</i> .....	(D. Appleton & Co.) 20
Tenney (Rev. E. P.), <i>Agamemnon: a Tale</i> .....	(Lee & Shepard) 1 25
Whitmore (W. H.), <i>The Graveyards of Boston. Vol. I</i> .....	(Joel Munsell) .....

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